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A Weekly Journal of Education.

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The Twentieth Century School.

The December meeting of the New York Educational Council was in many respects a most remarkable one. The subject assigned for discussion was, it is true, rather too large for anything like a complete treatment of the problems included in it. But Mr. Scudder and Supt. C. E. Gorton were equal to the task of making it yield thoughts worth pondering over. These men, illustrated, moreover, in a striking way, how a trained educator of the new dispensation looks upon topics involving pedagogical foundation principles, and what he considers essentials in practical application. There was no petty shop talk, nor did the speakers fustianize upon their theme. The talks were direct and given in plain language, while the plane the speakers occupied was high, they stood on solid ground—no funambulizing tricks on ropes of psychological and pedagogical terms.

Prin. Myron T. Scudder, of the New Paltz normal school, gave a wholesome, straightforward, thought-provoking talk in which he presented his view of what a twentieth century school ought to be. He said in part:

The criticism is often made by older people—with what justice we are not now called on to decide—that our boys and girls and young men and women, dislike work, are incapable, inefficient, not nearly so "handy" about things as were young people of some years ago. What our President Roosevelt loves to refer to as the strenuous life is a rare thing with young men and women now-a-days, and the capacity to do disagreeable things cheerfully, and hard things heartily, is conspicuous by its absence.

Yet the question may reasonably be asked, How could it be otherwise? For a long series of years during the formative period of a youth's life the school thru morning and afternoon, keeps him at his books attempting to give him, or to pour into him, information, much of which is useless for mental discipline and contains no inspiration, does not aim at utility, and which, experience shows, does little or nothing toward enabling him to orient himself with regard to his duty to himself or to his fellow beings.

Not only this but during these years the school actually prevents a boy or girl, particularly a girl, from getting an adequate training in those social, industrial, domestic arts of life that more than any others underlie the comfort and happiness of humanity. The school takes the girl away from the home during the only hours in which it is possible for her to become acquainted with the chief concerns of the home—nay with the chief concerns of life—namely the various phases of house-work, and, completely ignoring these in its curriculum, proceeds to train her for no one knows what, under the working theory that the most important thing in life is to learn to read and write. As a matter of fact many of our youth are being educated into idleness. Go into almost any school and pick out almost any girl and the chances are that we would not come very wide of the mark if we should say that able to accomplish little or nothing in any sphere of life, dependent for support on parents until death or marriage intervened, and in the latter case probably destined to a pitiful struggle with circumstances that neither home nor school had prepared her for, she is but typical of hundreds of thousands in our schools who are forced by

the law to submit to schooling that may do far more harm than good.

In our theories as to what a school should be, we are shifting over from a basis of how much do you know? to how much can you do? from an education that emphasizes information, passive listening, and bookishness to an education that gives one a masterful acquaintance with action, with things, with human nature, as well as with the treasures of thought that we inherit thru books. "Learning by doing" is the thought that is gaining ground so rapidly. Professor James gives us the following as the maxim that ought to dominate the entire conduct of the teacher in the class-room:

"No reception without reaction; no impression without correlative expression." "An impression," he says, "which simply flows in at the pupil's eyes or ears and in no way modifies his active life is an impression gone to waste. It is physiologically incomplete. . . . Its motor consequences are what clinch it."

The great reproach of our schools is the unreality of much if not most of the teaching. Teachers are not always conscious of this, but I think pupils generally are. We must both preach and practice the doctrine that at school pupils should learn how to combine brain and muscle and make a living. Education must be a conscious effort to prepare children for the environment in which they will find themselves after they leave school, not merely to "train mind" and "develop power" and turn it loose on society.

Now the changes in school administration called for by these considerations will extend not only to the curriculum, but to school government and to the outside interests of pupils.

As to the curriculum, it must be characterized less by bookishness. This does not mean that we shall do away with study or with books, for these will be supreme concerns in the twentieth century school. But instead of the use of books as an end in itself or the use of books for the sake of mental training or for the sake of information, the emphasis must be placed on the use of books as an incident in education: on the fact that a book is but a tool: that its function is to minister to the need that the child has of learning about his environment so that he can adapt himself to it.

But as a preparation for every day life—for the kind of thing that most children will be called on to do for so many hours during each day of their lives, the curriculum, particularly in the earlier years, and in a measure thru the secondary school and perhaps even further—must emphasize industrial arts and domestic science. A child when he leaves school is not going to spend his hours in reading, writing, and arithmetic, but in working, sleeping, eating and amusing himself. How important that at school should be taught those things that go so far to make life bearable or even attractive.

Manual labor of various kinds, skilful coöperation of brain and muscle every hour of the day, cooking, sewing, the making of beds and keeping things clean, setting the table, ventilating, caring for the sick, first aid to the injured and subsequent care of the same, making the home cheerful and attractive, beautifying house and grounds—these are the things that children are to be incessantly busy with when they get out of school, and surely it ought not to be above the dignity of the school to prepare children definitely for such things.

And so with that vitally important matter of passing one's leisure time. One doesn't want to read and study all the time he is not working or sleeping or eating. Proper amusement, play, is another of the vital concerns of life. How to enable a company to pass an evening profitably without resorting to dancing and cardplaying is an unknown art to the vast majority. Many a so-called party or social gathering is a sad commentary on the intelligence of the majority of those attending it. "Man is a gregarious animal." Abundant opportunity should be given for the proper gratification of this instinct, and careful thought bestowed on the means for enjoyment. Why should not children be as carefully taught the art of preparing a program for a social evening, as the art of computation or the art of something else that will be of comparatively little use to them? Realizing this, some schools are already giving attention to the art of amusement and of evening entertainment in parlor, church or hall, and this with properly supervised athletic sports bids fair to become a feature of the Twentieth Century School. In this way the school will become the moral and social, as well as the intellectual center of its neighborhood. The earnestness and power with which THE SCHOOL JOURNAL has presented this function of the school is well known to us all. Certainly no question confronts the educators to day, that has a more serious bearing on the welfare of society than this very one of developing the school, whether it be in the crowded city or in the sparsely settled country districts, until it becomes the people's club, its doors opening invitingly so that the life of the community may stream thru it—all being enriched by it, the young and old, rich and poor, each giving and receiving, not being confined merely to matters of the intellect, but entering into that conception of education, which recognizes that the industrial, the domestic, the social, the moral, and the religious are as important as the intellectual, and are as legitimately matters of concern to the public school system of this country in this the twentieth century."

Superintendent Gorton's Ideal School.

Supt. Charles E. Gorton, of Yonkers, is one of the honored leaders in the Council whose words on great educational subjects are always freighted with sound sense and helpful suggestion. He believed that the school of the twentieth century would not be a radical departure from the old, but a better interpretation and expansion of the ideas which are in practical operation now. We must build on the old, and let the new come into life and power by slow, but steady growth.

One direction in which the school will have to make considerable progress is the care of the physical condition of children. The indifference of parents in matters concerning the needs of their children's bodies is so glaring, especially in cities, that the school cannot escape the new duties springing from this source. Many a child entering the school-room is more in need of food for the body than of mental drill. Educators must face this problem of physical care and seek to solve it in the best way. THE SCHOOL JOURNAL is doing valiant service in pressing home the importance of this duty. Of the twentieth century school it must be said that the child that passes thru it will leave in better physical condition than he entered it.

The coming school will do more and better work in English. The children will come in closer touch with nature than ever before. Commercial training will receive due attention. Scientific pursuits will be encouraged. Power to do will count for more than mere knowledge. Instruction in the privileges and duties of citizenship will occupy an important place in the program. Moral development will be looked after. Education that assures the pupil an honest livelihood in the world is going to be considered of greater worth than the bookishness fostered by the schools of the past.

Expanding the latter suggestion, Superintendent Gorton criticised the narrow curriculum whose only

evident purpose it seemed to be to prepare all boys to be clerks and bookkeepers or else toil up thru college and into professional pursuits. Our curriculum, he urged, must recognize in a practical way that the great mass of our pupils are going to enter the ranks of the handworkers. The future welfare of these children demands that the conditions in which they are going to live are taken into account in the school course. Industrial training must be given the consideration its importance compels.

Of course, in working out the ideals which we have set up for the coming school, we will find ourselves barred by many limitations. It all depends upon what we are able to do with the community in which we labor. Their traditions, prejudices, wishes, and special needs cannot be brushed aside with impunity. The education of the community to a recognition of the justice and desirability of the new demands is an important duty of the educator who would be successful. All growth is slow. Forced growth is a dangerous thing.

Superintendent Gorton then made a telling plea for the training of the young in the arts of entertainment and the providing for leisure hours in order that they may derive the largest measure of enjoyment from life. He deduced striking arguments from the progress of the world in industrial lines which had reduced and is more and more reducing the laborer's working hours. The Saturday half-holidays and the longer periods gained for recreation must in some way be provided for by the school if it wants to do justice to the new conditions. Children must be taught how to make the best use of leisure moments. The development of taste by æsthetic training must also receive attention to diminish the temptations which spring from coarse and vulgar associations.

Summing up, Mr. Gorton said that the coming school must stand for the efficient equipment of children for greater and greater usefulness physically, intellectually, morally, and socially, and equipment best fitted for citizenship.

An Intermezzo.

"The bearing of manual training upon the twentieth century school" was so well presented by both Principal Scudder and Superintendent Gorton that the failure of Prin. Charles D. Larkins, of the Brooklyn manual training high school, to grasp the importance of the topic and do it anything like justice did not seriously detract from the completeness of the program. He made a hit by a clever side-remark. He was telling a story of Mr. Colgate, the banker-philanthropist, when Supt. M. Oakey who is somewhat of a wag suddenly asked him whether he referred to Mr. Colgate, the soapman. Quick as a flash the answer came "No, Larkins is the soapman." There was applause and hearty laughter and that's worth something too.

The Taxpayer's View.

Dr. James S. Cooley, of Glen Cove, spoke from the taxpayer's standpoint. He is a graduate of Williams and justly proud of the years spent under the direct influence of the great Mark Hopkins. He told of a remark of Dr. Canfield, the librarian of Columbia university, who was a classmate of his at Columbia: "This is the best day there ever was and to-morrow will be better yet." Commissioner Cooley felt sure that the taxpayer would gladly lend his support to real progress provided he could be shown that the new was either better than the old or that it could be added to the old without neglecting the latter. He believed that ways should be found for equalizing taxation in the state. As long as there were districts of less than \$10,000 valuation there could be no uniform progress in the improvement of the schools. The wider extension of the consolidation of school districts and transportation of pupils would solve many troublesome questions. The doubling of expensive equipment should be avoided wherever possible. Fewer and better high schools should be the

aim. He suggested also that wealthy men should be interested in the new demands made upon the schools and induced to give endowments that would help out the taxpayers of the poor communities. He also drew much comfort from the fact that wealth is increasing more rapidly than population. Thus the chief problem from the standpoint of the taxpayer would seem to be to enlighten every community concerning the educational responsibilities and new duties of the school and to be firm in the hope that the best will survive and greater good will grow as time passes on.



The New Year.

Before the next number of THE JOURNAL comes to the hands of its readers the first year of the twentieth century will have reached its close and a new year will have begun. To the conscientious teacher every new beginning is a matter of serious consideration—reflections on the past, and resolutions and hopes for the future. Have I made the most of my opportunities and my influence? Happy he to whom "it is finished" means that the work that was there for him to do was done, and that success attended the earnest efforts.

But let there be no feeling of discouragement or the bitterness of regret if consciousness of failure arises. Sometimes—yes, often—one's influence does not attain the end for which it was exerted. The Great Teacher had to see his own influence fail in the case of Judas, and often his heart was pained to find how little even those nearest to him understood him; how after years of teaching there were yet some among his own disciples who thought the kingdom he was speaking of must be one of temporal glory. Let the educator take comfort in the promise of the lives that have been quickened and made better by what he has been and has done for them.

Teaching is largely a seed time, and at best a period of growth and blossoming. The harvest, the coming to fruition of character and social usefulness, lies beyond school days. If one can say honestly and hopefully, "I have done the work that was given me to do to the best of my ability," he can look back over the months that have passed with a feeling of joy and triumph. And the resolutions for the future will be—to strive for greater and greater comprehension of the magnitude of the work of teaching, and to make the most of one's opportunities and powers in the light of the growing insight into the teacher's office.

The American Voice.

Mrs. Temple Kett, corresponding secretary of the Society of American Women in London, has been visiting in New York. According to the *Tribune* of recent date, Mrs. Kett said just before her departure for England, "One of the things I have noticed since my return is the difference between the speaking voice of the English and the American women. The American voice is not to be compared with the English for sweetness. Indeed, the speaking voice of the cultured English woman is superior to that of any other nation in the world. It seems strange that the enterprising and clever American clubwomen do not pay more attention to this matter. They have yet to learn that the effect of an interesting paper may be spoiled by an unsympathetic and unmusical voice.

"Another point that has struck me," she continued, is the vastly superior training of English children. The deference they show to their parents and elders, and their politeness, make them simply charming. This is the case with even the smallest children, and it is the result not of general education but of training in manners. Why English women do not take kindly to the idea of kindergarten training for the little ones is a thing I do not understand. They seem to have an unconquerable prejudice against the whole system, and so

far all efforts to change this feeling have been futile. They prefer the governess."

Professional Reading.

There is hardly a man among our progressive student-teachers who is better read on educational subjects than Mr. A. B. Cole, of Plainville, Mass. Whether his interest in letters is stimulated by looking at his own name, history does not tell, but at any rate he is well-fitted to give advice on the subject of what and how to read. Some of the suggestions are taken from the December *Teachers' World*. He says:

No progressive teacher to-day, in fact, no respectable teacher, will attempt to do his work without the help of one or more educational journals. These will be to his mind what a tonic is to his body, a stimulant which will allow him to do more and better work. What papers and how many shall be taken must depend somewhat on the teacher,—on his previous preparation for teaching, the locality in which he teaches, and his ability to use the material or ideas gained.

One should not take his educational papers, however, and think that they are a fair substitute for the more solid reading of educational doctrine contained in the regular books to be found in all pedagogical libraries. The doctrines of education are seldom found in the educational papers. In them is rather the comments, the expositions, as it were, of the principles laid down by Froebel, Herbert, Horace Mann, and other recognized leaders to whom all teachers look for ideas.

What every teacher needs is a moderate amount of general reading to keep up the enthusiasm; an equal amount to increase his stock of knowledge, and then on the end of all his reading, good solid thought and reason to so assimilate it that it will become a part of himself. We cannot follow any leader until we are in accord with his ideas and we cannot get in accord with his ideas by mere thoughtless reading.

Troublesome Commas.

How bothersome the rule for the punctuation of relative clauses is, Senator George F. Hoar, of Massachusetts, has lately discovered, not that the Senator, who is thoroly familiar with the little niceties of English speech, was himself caught napping. He wrote: "The Chinese who is in every way fit for citizenship is excluded, while the Portuguese or Italian who is absolutely unfit is admitted." The copy-reader on a Boston newspaper—they are very literary in Boston—to whom Senator Hoar's speech was telegraphed, concluded that a few commas would add spice and accordingly he had the sentence set up: "The Chinese, who is in every respect fit for citizenship, is excluded, while the Portuguese or Italian, who is absolutely unfit, is admitted." Punctuated thus, the Senator's words were too spicy for the numerous Italian and Portuguese residents of Massachusetts, who began to hold indignation meetings at which they denounced Senator Hoar for his bigotry and asserted their claims to superiority over the heathen Chinese. Even now, tho Mr. Hoar has carefully explained about the commas and has declared that he never thought or dreamed anything disrespectful or unkind of the people of Italy or Portugal, those who believe "their manhood to have been maliciously assailed" are inclined still to be unhappy. Not having been brought up on a diet of Hill and Lewis and Arlo Bates and Barrett Wendell, they have never been drilled into perception of the distinction between explanatory and restrictive relative clauses; and we can hardly wonder that such distinctions puzzle them. Indeed, anyone who has labored in this matter with a class of seventeen-year-old high school pupils who cannot, or will not, learn when to use the commas and when to leave them out, will understand the perplexity of Dr. Francis P. Silva and the other leaders of the Italico Portuguese colony in Boston. We cannot, however, help feeling that the Boston newspaper which allowed the sentence to go thru overloaded with commas was culpably negligent.

Geography in the Schools.

Report presented at the meeting of the New England Association of School Superintendents, Nov. 15, 1901, by Supt HORACE S. TARBELL, Providence; Prin. F. F. MURDOCK, North Adams State Normal, and Supt. LOUIS P. NASH, Holyoke.

(Continued from THE SCHOOL JOURNAL of December 14.)

We are to think of the child, not as isolated but as a member of a community, and growing up to his day of power in the community. At ten or eleven years of age he begins to compare different societies and states of society, and to find out what are the characteristic values of each. He begins to see the duty of an individual toward the society in which he lives. He is moving from the egoistic toward the altruistic.

Pupils who are in the last years of the grammar school ought to study synthetically. Hitherto they have studied as children, learning certain facts in order, because they were interesting, or because it was their duty to study as directed. They have not consciously looked far beyond this learning of facts. They should have now the power, and should be required, to gather up these great groups of facts, and view the subject as a whole, with due relation of parts. This is the kind of work that fits their mental needs, and that will prepare them for the scientific study of the high school.

Geography offers a complete field for the cultivation of the mental faculties. It requires first the perception of many interesting objects, which are within reach, and adapted to various ages. It calls forth the imaginative power, from its simplest to its greatest power and range. It uses the laws of association, and demands the recognition of causes and effects. As knowledge grows, phenomena are classified, abstraction and the formulation of general laws will have place. And in the general, or synthetic view of the subject, these laws will be deductively used, to anticipate and explain phenomena.

There remains to be considered the lesson of beauty. The little child in his first nature studies sees the beauty of the flower, or leaf, or bird. As he goes out to view the hills and streams, the beauty of the landscape appeals to him. If well taught he learns to select a point of view, to see what is really there, and to feel the emotional uplift that the scene inspires.

The use of pictures will add breadth and a higher inspirational quality. Pictures should be chosen, not merely because they express a fact that may be wanted, but because they reveal such truth, temperance, beauty, as will lead the mind upward to lofty ideals. It is not well to have too many pictures at once, lest they lead to dissipation of power. A few of the highest will accomplish more good than a crowd. As the little child, studying plants and animals, learns to love the living things and not to harm them, so he grows in power to love and appreciate truth and beauty in all things. Every day brings its duty of serious work; he grasps new truth from contact with the earth, or reads it from book or picture or map; he thinks deeper into the relations, the inner meanings, of what he learns; he sees how the truth and the beauty of nature are shown forth in great works of imaginative art, in picture, or literature, or music. With solid advance of observing and reasoning and classifying powers, with higher ascent of æsthetic and moral power, the whole soul grows in strength and beauty. While we plan our work, in this as in every other subject, the ideal, the æsthetic, the moral, the spiritual in the life of man must not be forgotten.

SUGGESTIONS CONCERNING THE DIVISIONS OF GEOGRAPHY AND METHODS OF TEACHING.

A teacher should know:

1. The learner's phase of life, the corresponding activities, mental content and interests.
2. The subject in its elementary and scientific aspects, their natural and logical division and the relation of the subject to other subjects.
3. The sources of knowledge appropriate to the

learner's stage of life and the aspect of the subject.

4. The method of teaching which will best meet the conditions of learning.

The learner in growing thru childhood and adolescence, passes from sensorial, immediate, spontaneous attention to intellectual, derived, volitional attention; from observation, imagination, imitation as the more prominent activities into generalization, reasoning; from objects seen separately to their space relations and sequence; from facts to causes, classes, principles, and laws; from qualitative to quantitative aspects; from uses to processes; from collection of facts to their organization; from utilitarian and scientific to æsthetic and ethical values; from outer beauty to inner meaning of life; from dependence on nature to interdependence of men.

The divisions of the subject for purposes of teaching should conform to the successive stages of childhood, adolescence, and adult life. Childhood and early adolescent life demand the elementary aspects of the subject and its relations. Later adolescent and adult life demand the subject as a science, isolated and seen thereafter in its relations to other sciences.

Method in teaching is the process of using a subject to cause growth in thought, purpose, and action.

These principles have been in mind in stating the divisions, relations, and methods of teaching geography.

Geographical Objects. These are the land, water, atmosphere, and life, or in a more extended analysis they are relief, drainage, coast, climate, minerals, plants, animals, people. The geographical objects which can be presented directly to the mind are said to be within vision and are learned by observation; those which cannot be directly presented to the mind are said to be beyond vision and must be imagined.

The appearance, relative position, activities, and simple uses of geographical objects, the obvious causes and effects, the ready comparisons and generalizations, are the products of observation, imagination, and simple reasoning, and are the content of elementary geography.

The less obvious activities and relations, the deeper causes and effects, the classes, principles, and laws of geographical phenomena are chiefly products of comparison, generalization, and reasoning, and are the content of scientific geography.

Elementary geography is the portion for primary and grammar schools. Scientific geography is the high school and college portion.

ELEMENTARY GEOGRAPHY.

1. Preliminary Study of Geographical Objects.

This is essentially primary work and extends thru the first four years. This preliminary study should include the different elements which enter into child life, physical, biological, and sociological. The elements most common in children's experiences are the industrial and commercial, and caution is needed lest the teaching of the physical element receives undue emphasis. The physiographic conditions are but the basis of biological and sociological aspects, both of which affect more directly our daily experiences. The æsthetic quality often appeals more strongly than the knowledge aspects, and in all cases it should have due consideration.

The general order is as follows:

1. Observation and imagination are the fundamental activities. Reasoning is concerning the concrete object and is not prominent in the primary grades. The teacher needs to keep constantly in mind that ideas gained from local objects and relations are the vital condition for imagining distant conditions.

2. Expression of knowledge follows by describing,

modeling, drawing, and the progressive use of geographic symbols.

3. Imagination of distant geographical objects and relations, resembling and differing from those at home, is accomplished chiefly by the aid of pictures, text, and conversation.

4. In the reading of plans and maps of his own locality and then of distant regions, much emphasis must be given to thinking the appearance and activity of the objects represented.

5. Location is of secondary importance in this preliminary study. A child's ability to locate is his ability to move himself in memory among objects, noting with accuracy their appearance in relative position. This ability arises in the home and school, is strengthened by acquaintance with the neighborhood, and then is applied by walking and riding and gaining views from high places to the town or city at large and to more distant regions. A child asking where Boston is or where the Chinese live does not ask for a map, but for guidance in imagination whereby he can take carriage or car or ship, see regions passed over, imagine thus the direction and distance, and finally arrive at the place asked for. Location by description of movements precedes the use of the map. Plans and maps because of their arbitrary symbols and the consequent difficulty in imagining appearances and activities are of later usefulness and should not be prominent until after the study of the globe. Knowledge of the location of a symbol should *always* follow knowledge of facts represented by the symbol.

Further treatment of preliminary study is by the following groups: A. Land and Water Forms. B. Climate. C. Minerals, plants, and animals. D. People.

A. Land and Water Forms.

Local Objects.

Choose for your first teaching that group of objects most prominent in your vicinity, and by means of which you can develop the most observing power and excite the most interest in your pupils. Begin with the knowledge each has, review it from the objects, and teach him to find new facts. Proceed from small objects to larger ones, from simple features to related features. The typical forms and activities are to be found everywhere. They may be insignificant in size and very temporary in duration, but the life forces and life products are there.

The range of facts is indicated by the following topics: Recognizing and naming objects. Parts and their relations. Important characteristics. Relations to other geographical objects. Uses. Beauties. How made? Historical connection. Comparison with other local objects.

Distant Objects.

Proceed from local objects to similar distant objects, then to differing ones, from single to related features. By memory and imagination known facts are recalled, rearranged, and modified as indicated by the picture, model, drawing, or description read. Names of pictures of noted objects should be memorized. When map symbols are sufficiently well known to make possible an intelligent use of maps then have the objects located.

The aims in the study of distant objects are (1) to know types of geographical objects not found in one's own locality, (2) to know variations in objects of the same type, (3) to appreciate more fully the beauty, the grandeur, the usefulness of geographic features, (4) to arouse the desire to see, to enjoy, to appreciate the wonders of nature, (5) to train the imagination.

The prominent geographical objects of one's own state and country should be separated within the topic Distant Objects in order to make sure of the acquisition of knowledge, and the appreciation of the usefulness and beauty of these geographical features. The order of importance is (1) to know and value the objects, (2) to feel they are ours, (3) to know their location chiefly by

reference to physical features, (4) to know how to get to them. The organization of the data thus gathered accompanies and follows the study of the United States.

Teach as many distant objects as are necessary to make a sure start in the habit of imagining and appreciating such features. So much of causes and effects should be taught as can be easily understood from local phenomena and the pictures and models used.

Sources of Knowledge.

They are the objects themselves in their natural relations, the constituent parts of objects, natural and manufactured products, models, pictures, maps, textbooks, and supplementary reading.

Models.

Of the means of expressing ideas of objects the model is the most accurate and the most complete. To model an object, therefore, necessitates keen and full observation. For these reasons modeling in sand or clay is a most important means of expression of relief forms and their relations to each other and to drainage. Of his own accord a child begins the expression of these ideas. It is the teacher's duty to continue the use of this natural means of expression (1) for its own worth, (2) as means of necessitating close observation, (3) that the child may learn to use models as aids to the imagination in learning of distant unseen objects and their relations, (4) as means of deriving map symbols, and (5) as means of recitation. (See Note 1.)

Pictures.

These are used to recall past experiences with nature and human life, to stimulate to new thought, to excite feelings proportional to the intensity of past experiences and to the excellence of the picture.

With younger classes (possibly all) the best approach is by the thought "What do you *like* in the picture?" This compels observation of the object and some feeling concerning the same, while "What do you *see* in the picture?" allows a minimum of appreciation of beauty or other emotional element.

In physiographic pictures the beauty of the natural scenery, its grandeur, picturesqueness, or other quality should not be excluded by thought of the physiographic processes. Read literature which may be in accord and suggested by the picture.

Map Symbols.

Read concerning (5) Location previously treated.

Expression by geographical symbols should be started thoroly in the fourth year. Most people read the printed names only on maps and so remain relatively ignorant. Geographic symbols far exceed text in the representation of physical phenomena. The first plans and maps used by children should be without printed names.

a. Drawing to a scale should be taught as an application of arithmetic and form, then practiced in the reading of simple plans, in drawing simple plans of the room, building, yard, street, neighborhood, and in reading maps of towns, cities, and larger areas. In this process of reading it is essential that a given area be studied in a series of maps having successively smaller scales.

b. Profiles. The first sketches by children of hills and other relief forms are vertical outlines. Apply this power to varied sand forms, first sketching and then drawing to a scale, and the interpretation of any profile follows naturally and easily.

c. River lines. Make sure that the pupils associate

Note 1. The Harvard Geographical Models, designed by Prof. W. M. Davis, are the best for giving a physical basis to the study of geography. The first three of the series represent a mountainous region bordering the sea; the same slightly depressed so as to produce an irregular shore line; the same slightly elevated so as to be bordered by a coastal plain. An illustrated account of the models can be had of the Secretary of the Boston Society of Natural History, Berkeley street, Boston, Mass. Price, 25 cents.

The models made by Edwin E. Howell, 613 Seventeenth street, N. W., Washington, D. C., are very valuable. They are based on government surveys and include models of the United States, of smaller groups of states, and of single states.

the beautiful S curves with streams winding sluggishly thru lands having very little slope; the irregular curves and more or less angular turns with streams flowing thru lands having more slope and offering large obstructions to the course of the streams. In associating S curves with plains make sure that the plains are not thought to be necessarily low with reference to the sea level. Apply these ideas in the reading of river lines copied from large scale maps, then to the same river lines on the maps from which copies are made.

d. Coast lines. By use of ponds when the ocean is not at hand, and by the use of pictures associate curves with soft shore lines and angles with rock-shore lines. Apply as for river lines.

e. Hill shading. Relief forms should be represented also by hill shading, that is by lines showing the direction, length, and to some degree the steepness of the slope. These lines also show the direction in which rain water flows off the surface and the lines are sometimes called by children rain-water-lines, or slope lines. The hill shading drawn by children should consist of continuous lines which show the general directions and lengths of the slopes. Sand models furnish never failing knowledge and interest when used to derive hill shaded maps and river lines. The surface of the models should be pressed smooth and on it the slope-lines lightly scratched. Impress on the pupils that these lines show where rain water flows. Have the places found where the slopes, and, therefore, the rain waters meet. The brooks, ponds, etc., can be located, reasons given for the location, and if desired the locations marked by blue strings.

The hill shaded maps read during early lessons should consist of continuous lines and should display variety in shape, size, and relative position of objects.

Application. Given a hill shaded map to infer and draw the drainage lines. Given the drainage lines to infer and draw the relief forms. Given a map containing hill shading and drainage lines to infer and draw the coast line. Given a map containing coast and drainage lines to infer and draw relief forms. All of the conditions can be met very easily by hektographing outlines from maps in geographies. The same sand models and maps may be used for inferring locations of occupations, highways, towns, etc.

Lead the pupils to see that broken slope lines can be adjusted to show irregularities in the direction of the slopes; that by shading any portion of the broken line steepness may be represented at any place on the slope. For this work Gerster's Chart of Map Symbols and the two companion maps of Switzerland (a. Relief and drainage, b. relief, drainage, and political features) are simply indispensable whether considered from the standpoint of the child or the subject. This step leads to the use of wall maps and those in the text-books and atlases.

f. Contours. These enable the exact mapping of a region by adding the quantitative element to slope representation. They should be introduced at the latest with that study of the continents which follows the study of the earth as a whole. Teach contours by having the children use a straight stick and a spirit level and stake out several level lines, the vertical interval being adapted to the slope selected. Or have children scratch lines around sand or clay models at contour intervals of an inch, using stiff wire or needles resting on blocks. Then have contours on wall maps interpreted. A most excellent test is to have a profile derived from the contours which occur between two given places.

Recitations.

Recitations are expressions by the pupil by which his knowledge and interest and power become known to the teacher.

Recitations upon local and distant objects should occasion children to move again thru the processes by which the objects became known and appreciated. Hence the form of recitation should be first as like as possible

to the form of learning, and then followed by forms which by their variety test the accuracy and fullness of the pupil's mental content.

Reading.

Make appropriate selections from the text-book to restate facts; to give information.

Supplementary reading should furnish descriptions of typical and noted objects, of the wonders of the earth, of noteworthy journeys, of the manifold uses of the land and water forms.

B. Climate.

This as a general topic includes forms of water, winds, and weather. The observation of these phenomena in particular is begun naturally by children before entering school, and should be continued with emphasis in all primary and intermediate grades, until at least the topic climate be reached in the study of the earth as a whole.

Forms of Water.

The range of observation is suggested by the following questions:

How do you distinguish each? Where do you find each? How much falls at a time? When is each most abundant? What variation has each in form, size, and number? What are the uses of each? What are the beauties of each? What are the effects of the sun and wind on the different forms?

During the fourth year emphasis should be given to imagining by means of pictures and text the regions of prevailing cloud and fog, rain and dew, frost, snow, and ice, glaciers, icebergs, and ice floes. Association should be made with the life of each region. This section is pre-eminently geographical in its value.

The changes in the forms of water are learned as facts largely from observation. The causes and results of these changes should be studied with some care because of the need of the data in the study of the climatic conditions of the earth as a whole and of each continent. This contributory work should be pursued thru the fifth, sixth, and seventh years.

Winds.

This topic illustrates clearly the relation of physics to geography. The range of thought is temperature, moisture, pressure, motion, direction, velocity, and effects. In each topic the air as a physical substance is and must be known to every child thru observation and inference before he knows and as the condition of knowing winds and their effects and distribution. The study of the winds is not too difficult to begin in the third year. During the fourth, fifth, and sixth years sufficient data will be in mind for thinking the knowledge into the order indicated by the topics, and so render the general world distribution of winds easily comprehensible.

Weather.

Both forms of water and winds receive attention because of the daily observation of the weather. They appear as separate topics when their respective facts are collected.

As a natural outcome of daily records weather knowledge should be associated knowledge of the conditions which usually prevail at the same time, and not the prominence of a single feature. The effects of weather should be taught because of its direct influence upon relief forms and life and its direct control of man's occupations.

Climate in its annual significance becomes evident by summarizing from the daily school records, by reading the government daily weather maps and the monthly and yearly bulletins. Temperate, torrid, and frigid climates thus come to be truthfully presented and appreciated.

C. Minerals, Plants, Animals.

These become geographical in their importance when uses and distribution are studied. In connection with minerals emphasize the fertility of soils. Concerning

plants and animals emphasize the useful plants peculiar to the locality, to the temperate, the cold, the hot regions, and select the prominent characteristics of the life of the region. The order and method of teaching conform to the principles already illustrated.

D. People.

Within this topic geography in its consideration of the races is related to ethnology, of occupations to economics, of settlements and governments and states of society to sociology. No other part of geography arouses more spontaneity and intensity of interest than this and no other part has more ethical values.

The geographical and related ideas concerning people will not be taught best if the topics are considered in the order of this discussion. A point of interest should be found and around it all important related facts gathered.

Races.

Races should be studied very slightly for physical characteristics. Occupations, dress, customs, manners, and other habits of life are of most interest. The influence of geographic environment should be introduced according to the ability of comprehension of the learners. Great caution should be used in the study of local representatives of foreign races.

Occupations and Settlements.

Occupations and Settlements when taught by reference to present needs of people living in and out of settlements lead children to understand not only the dependence of man on nature, but also of man upon man.

The contents of the following propositions are gathered by observations of daily life and by imagination of historical conditions as suggested, *e. g.*, in younger grades by celebration of special days and stories of Colonial life:

1. No man unaided can supply all his needs, so that men have divided the occupations among themselves.
2. People exchange the articles they produce or their services for other articles or services.
3. People live in villages, towns, or cities to make the supply of their needs easier.

Occupations divide into three groups. The first group is distinctly geographical in that it shows the dependence of man upon nature for that which may be called raw material. It includes hunting, fishing, grazing, and agriculture which supply food and clothing; lumbering, mining, and quarrying which afford shelter. All of these should be taught, proceeding from the near to the far, the simple to the complex, and with an emphasis proportional to the importance of the occupation. This group is well adapted to children of the fourth and fifth grades.

The second group is strictly economic in that it shows the dependence of man on man, the necessity and effects of competition, and how the struggle for existence leads to the desire and realization of higher states of life. It is strictly geographical to know the distribution and relative prominence of the manufacturing industries of any place and those of the various parts of the world. This group of industries is of particular interest to children onward from about fifth year of school life.

The third division of occupations is largely geographical, but is very closely related to economics and history, in that it shows dependence of men on nature, the interdependence of men, and man's modification of nature for the more complete satisfaction of his needs. This division commonly called commerce includes the exchange of both raw material and manufactures. The observational study of one's own locality in this matter is one of the best illustrations that geography affords of easy and natural transition from the near to the far, of the use of the local from the appreciation of the distant. The study of the previous groups of occupations in a locality leads at once to consideration of (1) home supply, local surplus which is sent away, local lack which is supplied from other places; (2) of the place as a collecting

and distributing center; (3) of the persons engaged as producers, collectors and distributors, and consumers; (4) of the means of transportation. The connection of these topics with local and general history is a necessary factor in the study of local progress. Commerce as a content of children's minds has a development contemporaneous with that of the other occupations.

Settlements as a geographical matter are found to be determined by the influences of physiographic and biologic forces; as a sociological matter they are found to be the result of the interdependence of men for the satisfaction of their needs. The geographical study shows where people congregate, the sociological study shows why. These elements together explain the varying density of population.

The geographical study of settlements is contemporaneous with the study of occupations and becomes pronounced with the study of the world distribution of people in the sixth or seventh years. The sociological study of settlements does not become pronounced until the eighth and ninth years, being dependent upon a considerable knowledge of history. The range of this phase of study is suggested as follows:

Families from settlements—villages, towns, or cities, (1) to facilitate manufacturing and the exchange of products either among themselves directly (barter) or by means of stores; (2) to increase the opportunities for education by furnishing suitable houses for instruction and employing regular teachers; (3) to secure fuller enjoyment of religious belief by building churches and employing regular ministers; (4) to take part in social life both in homes of individuals and in halls, etc.; (5) to provide for mutual protection by means of special officers and public buildings.

II. Study of the World or the Earth as a Whole.

FIFTH AND SIXTH GRADES.

Every child upon acquaintance with himself in his own locality asks for the world-wide views. He thinks of the world in but two parts, namely, the part he knows and the part he does not know, and for the second he asks constantly, if his questions are interpreted for mental movement rather than for the particular objects. Every child ranges at will and at ease everywhere over the earth if stories, or story tellers, or pictures be at hand, and he enters into the enjoyment of being in touch with all life. Genetic psychology and its pedagogy demand this phase of study as the child's necessity and right. Analytic psychology and its pedagogy have always recognized this phase of the subject, dignified it by a topic and two hemispherical maps and then abused it by nonsensical map questions or totally neglected it. Long years after business men knew that the world was their market and had gained it, the vast majority of teachers and school officers remained torpid in their winter of tradition, and awoke only when the heat of the Spanish war passed thru the rigid crust of school routine, roused them to humane social life once more, and stirred some of them to the perception of world affairs and of the superior insight of half-grown children.

From the standpoint of children's educational needs, or of international world-wide business relations, or of the ethical brotherhood of man, or from all these and their connections the fact must and will be recognized that the study of the world is the all-inclusive and all-important aspect of geography apart from the observational study of one's own locality.

The study of the world in its relations satisfies the natural movement of children into world aspects of life and enables them to arrange their ideas, to relate in position their facts which to this time have been a mere collection, and thereafter to organize all their thoughts with truest relations because of their being world relations. There is no other possible way of cultivating wide observation, safe imagination, sound reasoning, and adequate sympathy, and thereby of growing into a

brotherhood of man. The elemental ideas of a world peace must be sown in the minds of children, nourished into ideals during the inspirations of adolescence, and harvested in maturity. Geography in this aspect exceeds all other sciences in informing, revealing, impelling power.

Four years of school life (excluding the kindergarten) are none too long for collecting facts concerning geographical objects as previously indicated. Children do not usually give evidence of having sufficient data or of wishing to begin this part of geography before the fifth year.

Each child should be led to know :

(1) That the earth is a whole, a unit, having qualities or powers as a whole differing from the qualities of its parts.

(2) That each part, land, water, atmosphere, and life, has its own qualities, differing from the qualities and powers of all other parts.

(3) That the several parts and the whole are all working together to make the earth a home for man, and the means for his progress to better, nobler, higher life.

"To think of the earth as a seed sown from the hand of God himself on the great fields of space, and filled with a germinant power of life, which will transform it more and more, and make it more and more worthy of its noblest inhabitant, is the first as it is the last idea which we must take and keep in these inquiries." To think of the earth "in all its features, phenomena, and relations, as an independent unit, and (to) show the connection of this unified whole with man and with man's Creator." (Ritter.)

The conditions for entering upon and pursuing the study of the world are :

1. Pupils must be able to observe attentively, and recall accurately geographical objects and phenomena.

2. Pupils must have a working knowledge of the different geographical objects—bodies of land, etc.—people.

3. Pupils must be able to express and acquire knowledge of geographical facts by the use of geographical symbols.

4. Pupils must be provided with such sources of knowledge as will call into activity the right power at the right time.

The observation of natural objects continues with more attention to details especially of the usefulness of geographical objects and phenomena to man, and his use of them.

The imagination of the appearance, of the relative position, relative extent, relative height, and other qualities of distant geographical objects is conditioned on the observation of pictures, globes, physical views, physical maps, etc. Make these two phases of the imaginative work always definite and distinct. First, the observations of pictures, globes, physical views and maps to stimulate and assist the imagination. Second, the imagination of the region without the presence of any apparatus. Unless the second step is distinct the symbols remain the most important things in the mind and the living object is not apprehended.

The reasoning is chiefly to find the more obvious effects of the differing geographical objects on each other and their service to man. It is conditioned on previous observation of local features and phenomena and on correct reading of maps.

The Sources of Knowledge Are :

1. Facts of geographical objects and phenomena previously acquired by observing, imagining, and reasoning.

2. Pictures classified according to the topics to be taught, labeled, and conveniently arranged.

3. Globes. Every pupil should have one for his individual study just as he has a separate text-book. Paper globes six inches in diameter are sufficient. There should also be one large (twelve inches) well printed globe for class teaching. A slated globe twelve inches

in diameter, should be furnished. It is indispensable if true ideas of the unity of structure and of the simple world relations are to be taught. On it the coast lines should be painted. This is easily prepared by drawing with lead pencil meridians and parallels, locating prominent points of the coast by latitude and longitude, and painting the coast lines with ordinary white paint. When drainage symbols are also drawn the globe is called for convenience a drainage globe.

The slated globe should be used for presenting each idea separately and then in its prominent relations. The printed globes show too many relations at one time to admit of very clear thinking by children.

A relief globe of the earth is very desirable. (See Note 2.) The relief tho of course exaggerated satisfies the desire of children for reality as no other globe or map does.

4. Hemispherical relief views are next in value to the relief globe. Cuts made from photographs of a relief globe are most truthful. The series should include polar views, at least four equatorial views (Americas, Pacific, Eurasia, Atlantic, and the land and water hemispheres.

5. Maps. If it is right and necessary to teach truth and to be guided by children's abilities the globes referred to are the proper sources and not maps of the eastern and western hemispheres, nor maps drawn upon Mercator's projection. The use of these maps is positively harmful in nearly all grammar grades. The disproportion and distortion of the equatorial regions on these hemispherical maps, and in an enormous degree of the polar regions on the Mercator projection, and the discontinuity of the east and west directions on all these maps render it impossible for children to imagine by the use of these maps the earth a sphere or to gain a reasonably true idea of the relations of the parts of the world.

Maps on the polar projections and on the plane of London are open to similar criticisms, but are distinctly less harmful than other projections. The London projection with the south parts of South America and Africa added is a good basis for representing relief, drainage, and coast. The polar projections are best for isotherms, winds, and ocean currents because the relative shapes, areas, and continuities are retained with the least untruth. Children readily pass from globes to these maps by holding the globes so as to appear like the map. These projections when drawn upon slated cloth have proved wonderfully useful companions of the slated globe. (See Note 3.)

Recitations should be of such a character as to necessitate constantly increasing independent work by the pupils. The topical rather than the question and answer method should be used. The following ways of reciting are of great importance:

1. Oral descriptions with or without the aid of pictures, globes, or maps.

2. Association of pictures, places, etc., with their geographic symbols on globes and maps. On the world outline maps filled in by the pupils have the location of places shown in pictures marked by dots and figures, the explanation being written in the margin.

3. Globe drawing. Expression by geographic symbols on the slated coastline globe of facts to climate; on a slated drainage globe of facts beginning with climate, e. g. To think and draw isotherms correctly coastline, relief, and drainage should be given and only the isotherms be drawn from memory.

4. Map Drawing. Expression by geographic symbols on (a) world coastline map of facts to climate; on (a) world drainage map of facts beginning with climate.

Note 2. Jones' Model of the Earth (eighteen inches), A. H. Andrews & Co., of Chicago, is the best model of its kind for elementary schools.

Note 3. Small individual maps on these projections are published by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, and Atkinson & Mentzer, of Chicago. Large stencils for making slated cloth maps can be procured of J. L. Hammett & Co., Boston.

5. Written description from single topics, and series of topics with and without the aid of pictures, globes, or maps.

Range of Knowledge and Suggestions as to Method.

A The earth a Planet. The qualities of the earth as a whole referred to previously are:

Form and Size. The facts are based on the study of spheres. The oblate spheroidal form is of no consequence at this time. The approximate dimensions should not be confined to the polar diameter and the equatorial circumference.

The earth in Space. The topic is not geographical but is of great interest to children at this time and is worthy of attention. This conception is dependent upon previous observations of the moon. Pictures of the moon increase interest in observing the motion, rising, and setting. Thus it is possible to think of the earth's appearances as if observed from the moon.

Rotation of the Earth. The facts can be told for children to imagine, or children can be led to observe and infer the rotation and related facts. The second process is the better and those children who can reason will have their opportunity for growth. The steps are, (1) Observation of the sun's path across the sky from sunrise to sunset, imagination of the sun's path below the horizon across the sky from sunset to sunrise; (2) Observation of telegraph poles or other objects as one is carried past them; (3) Inference that either the sun or the earth is moving, that the earth may be rotating; (4) Assurance by the teacher of the earth's rotation; (5) Careful illustration by using balls and globes; (6) Effects upon life activities.

Revolution of the Earth and Inclination of the Axis. In connection with climate, observations of the sun's movements and their effect upon light, heat, and life should be made carefully and fixed in thought. Then the cause should be taught.

Geographical Position. The form of the earth determines all directions on its surface to be on the circumferences of circles and all distances to be in degrees. The rotation establishes two sets of circumferences. The axis gives rise to circles of which it is the diameter on whose semi-circumferences directions are named north and south. The direction of rotation of points on the surface gives rise to the set of circles perpendicular to the axial set, and on whose circumferences directions are named east and west. These circumferences being thus established location upon the earth is accurate and certain.

If these ideas be taught as geometric truths by means of balls and slated spheres and applications be made to the earth itself and then to globes and maps, no topics will be more productive of power than these which lead to latitude and longitude. Thus taught the topic is not too difficult for pupils to begin in the fifth and sixth grades.

Distribution of Light and Heat. The general distribution due to the form and rotation of the earth should precede the peculiarities due to the relative positions of the land and water. The form of the earth determines that but one-half of the earth is lighted and heated by the sun, that the point of greatest light is that at which the rays are vertical, that from this central point light and heat gradually diminish in all directions to the circumference of the lighted half.

The rotation of the earth causes the different portions of the earth in succession to be lighted and heated, and thus causes (1) alternation of day and night, or, more fully, the series of sunrise, forenoon, noon, afternoon, sunset, twilight, evening, midnight and dawn; (2) alternation of heat and cold, the extreme of heat occurring in the early afternoon, that of cold in the early morning.

The revolution of the earth and the inclination of the axis cause the lighted and heated half not to have always the same relation to a given place on the earth,

but to swing north and south alternately, so that when north, the central area of light and heat is north of the equator and the border of the lighted and heated area is beyond and includes the north pole; that when south, the central area of light and heat is south of the equator and the border of the lighted and heated half is beyond and includes the south pole.

Zones based upon these data are bounded by parallels and are purely astronomical. The general distribution of light and heat is modified by the land and water, so that very marked variations from astronomical boundaries occur. Geographical belts of heat bounded by isotherms are easily comprehensible in the sixth and seventh grades.

(b) The Parts of the Earth. These in the broadest, truest sense are the land, water, atmosphere, and life. Every child knows many facts concerning each part, and the purpose of this new step is the relating of these facts to each other so as to form a simple, truthful conception of the spherical earth as a world having a few parts definitely related in position and use. The facts which underlie this conception are wholly within the comprehension of the children of the fourth grade. Whether they are known or not depends upon the educational environment. The following topics indicate the desired trend of thought. The sources of knowledge and the method are implied.

The Land and Water.

This earth of ours consists of a great rounded rough rock mass, whose surface shows great ridges and as great hollows. Salt water rests in most of these great hollows, and is deep enough to cover over some of the ridges of the rough rock mass. So that if one could look down from far above upon the earth as it turned under him he would see a small portion of the rock mass projecting above the water. (This should be continued into a study of important details of the land and water hemispheres.) Surrounding the earth, deep in the pores, caves, cracks, crevices, and hollows of the land and water is the air which also stretches outward into space hundreds of miles. The plants, the animals, and people live in the land, the water, and the air.

The great land mass is rock down to the center of the earth. The inner parts are hotter than we can imagine. The outer part on which the water and air rest was once hot and at that time smoother. As the outer part cooled it hardened and stiffened, and the next inner part, still hot yet cooling, tended to shrink away from the outer. But the outer part rested on the inner and in following it as it shrank the outer part wrinkled and broke into ridges. This process is going on slowly now. An apple hung up in the air becomes small inside, and as the skin continues to rest on the pulp it becomes wrinkled and ridged.

The rock crust is now wrinkled up into one great mass whose crest stretches not quite all the way around the earth. This enormous ridge bears on its surface many smaller ridges and many nearly smooth stretches which are the mountains and plains we know. This same long enormous ridge forms two vast unequal hollows in which lie the salt waters which we know as the oceans.

One slope of the great land mass is so steep that the ocean comes very near to the crest of the ridge and very little of the surface of this slope shows above the water. This same slope is so long and steep in some parts as to make this basin have much the deeper hollows. The other slope is very gradual and has so much of its surface above the ocean that the part of the basin filled with water is like a long, winding trough.

The basin which this very gradual slope makes is much smaller than the one made by the steep slope, but it has so much more land above the ocean that almost all the people of the world live in the smaller basin. Most of the ridges of the smaller basin rise from the broad dry land surfaces, a few form islands very near the coast, and a few form long ranges on the bottom of the

trough. The slope of this smaller basin is so regular that the land and water project into each other to a remarkable degree and form fine waterways and harbors. In the larger basin which is so steep walled, little land shows above water and far away from the crest only the mountain tops of lesser ridges show, and these make thousands of islands rising from the ocean. Then, too, the steep slope is more regular and very many fewer irregularities of coast are formed.

(The truth of a single vast irregular land mass with two great basins is a well proven scientific truth presented by some of the best geologists and physiographers of the world. The pedagogical place may be questionable, but not the scientific truth.)

The rains and snows which fall on the great ridge form three great groups of rivers, (1) those which flow down the steep slope of the large basin; (2) those which flow down the gradual slope of the smaller basin; (3) those which flow into lesser hollows and do not reach the sea. The rivers of the larger basin are relatively fewer, shorter, and less navigable than those of the smaller basin.

The inequalities of the land mass in height and slope cause the exposed part to be completely divided naturally in two places, and so nearly so in two others, that at one of these a canal has been cut thru and at the second a canal is being dug. These great divisions of the exposed portions of the world mass are called continents, and what we know of each continent is what we know of that part of the land, and rivers, and coast, etc., which it includes.

The Atmosphere.

For intelligence concerning the Heat Belts every one must proceed from facts to causes in some degree. To this end facts concerning the Unequal Heating of the Atmosphere are vitally essential. They are a part of Nature Study (Physics), and yet must be taught and used in immediate connection with Geography.

1. The sun sends its rays thru the air to the land and water; the land and water absorb the heat.

2. The land becomes heated faster than the water during the day time, and becomes cooled faster than the water during the night time. (Observe by feeling or by reading a thermometer laid on the surface of a pond or neighboring roadway, or at a beach.)

3. The land becomes heated faster than the water during the summer, and becomes cooled faster than the water during the winter. (Water in the ground freezes before water in the ponds, and ice on the ground melts before ice on the ponds.)

4. The atmosphere is heated but little by the rays which pass thru it; it is heated most by coming in contact with the heated land and water. (Known by climbing mountains, by balloon trips.)

5. The air over the land is hotter than the air over a neighboring large mass of water during the day time, and cooler during the night time. (Known by feeling and reading thermometers.)

6. The upper air is much colder than the lower air. (Balloonists.)

Local Range of Temperature, Isotherms, Belts of Heat are the topics which follow naturally.

The relation of astronomical observations to understanding the Motions of the Heat belts will be evident from these facts.

Local Observations.

1. The sun is low in the south at noon in winter, and even the noons are cold.

2. The sun rises higher and higher in the south at noon during the spring and the noons become warmer and warmer.

3. The sun is nearer our zenith in June and July and those noons are warmest.

4. The sun sinks lower and lower in the south at noon during the autumn, and the noons become colder.

5. The sun is very low in the south during the noon of December and January, and those noons are coldest.

6. The sun as it swings higher thru successive noons brings heat to places, as it swings lower thru successive noons it carries away the heat. These places are on meridians and the sun seems to move north and south.

7. Effects produced by the swinging of the sun north and south on water, soil, plants, animals, and people should be carefully noticed. This is the practical geographical side of the change of seasons.

By Imagination and Inference.

1. The heat swings north and south with the sun.

2. The belts of heat swing north and south with the sun.

3. The torrid and temperate belts are farthest north during our summer, farthest south during our winter.

4. Each frigid zone lessens in size as the sun swings toward it and almost disappears when the sun is nearest it; then becomes very large when the sun swings away from it. Describe climatic changes as indicated in paragraph seven above.

5. Questions. How far does the isotherm of 70 degrees move over North America? the Pacific? the Atlantic? Eurasia? the isotherm of 30 degrees? the heat equator? Where is the most motion and why?

6. In what zones are these places in January? in July? Select known places.

The facts of Winds, direction, temperature, moisture; of Ocean Currents, direction, temperature, effects, eddies; of Rainfall, distribution, time, amount, are appropriate for the sixth grade. If causes are attempted there must precede observations and inferences concerning the effect of changes in heat on air, the effects of wind on the surface of water, the effects of changes in heat on the forms of water, the formation of dust whirls. Few sixth classes are equal to the study of these conditions even in a simple way.

Soil.

All children are able to imagine other regions like their own and if able to perceive simple relations of cause and effect in the concrete of their own locality are able to understand similar conditions wherever found. It is easy for children in sixth grades to understand by means of pictures, globes, and world maps the distribution of fertile and barren regions. Many children are able to infer by reference to relief, drainage, and climate where such regions are to be expected and by comparison of isothermal, wind, and rainfall maps locate the regions correctly. The silvas, Kongo basin, plains of India, Mississippi valley, the Atlantic coastal plain, the plains of the Danube are examples of regions thus discovered readily.

Plants, Animals, and Minerals.

The facts already in mind should be related in position by means of world maps. The maps in Bartholomew's Atlas of commercial geography furnish data which transferred in turn to a slated cloth map on the London or north polar projection (south parts of Africa and South America attached for convenience) enable children at a glance to understand distribution, and the consequent interdependence of men. Distributions, products, occupations, centers of collection and distribution, and ways and means of transportation all appear in true correlation and should be taught only in that relation at this time. The dependence of men on each other excites more interest and growth than the dependence of men on nature. This aspect of geography beginning in the sixth grade increases steadily in importance thru the older grades.

Each product should be seen not only in relation to relief, drainage, and climate, but also in its relation to man. Have the general distribution read, the locations of the chief surplus producing areas, and associated centers of exchange and manufacturing memorized.

Races.

The purpose now is to review and add facts concerning the characteristics, customs, etc., of the people as met with in previous lessons, to perceive what each race

is doing with its portion of the world, to find how much advancement each has made.

Mark on the north polar world map the distribution of races as indicated in Bartholemew's Atlas of Commercial Geography. It is impossible by use of Mercator's projection to imagine clearly the continuity of the area occupied by the Yellow race, or to understand other historical facts vitally associated with this topic.

Up to 1492 the Yellow race occupied the territory from Tibet to Cape Horn; the White race occupied the territory from the plateau of Tibet to the plateau of Abyssinia, and from the Indian ocean to the Atlantic; the Black race occupied the territory south of Abyssinia and the Australian region. Since 1492 the White race has crossed the Atlantic, penetrated the western side of the world, following natural highways to the Pacific and Arctic, and is driving the Yellow race from North America; also the White race since 1492 has crossed the Atlantic and Indian oceans and skirted South America, Africa, and Australia with settlements. The Black race since 1492 has been forcibly removed from Africa by the White race, and established in North and South America. The progress of the White race from the Baltic along natural highways to the Japan sea is another suggestive fact easily perceptible by aid of this map.

If the kind of work indicated for the preliminary study of geographical objects and for the study of the world be done a child leaving school will know his locality, will know similar facts concerning his state and country, will know the world in its simple fundamental aspects. He will realize his dependence on nature and upon other human beings, and will have beginnings of a feeling of the unity of nature and of the possible unity of people. He will have a fair start in right intellectual habits, in esthetic appreciation of natural scenery, and in ethical valuations of man's activities. His usefulness as a citizen will exceed to an immeasurable degree that narrow service which comes from neglecting the locality, from minifying the world, magnifying North America, especially the United States, before he knows even the existence of those other regions and peoples on whose life he is vitally dependent.

III. The Continents.

SIXTH AND SEVENTH GRADES.

The aims in the study of each continent should be:

1. Find what part of the world relief, of the world drainage, of the world climate, of the world productions, of the world races each continent includes. This is review work.

2. Find such new details of relief, drainage, climate, soil, productions, and people of each natural section of the continent as are necessary to understand and appreciate the work of the continent and its inhabitants in the development of the people of the continent.

3. Think the continent anew in its relation to the world relief yet with more completeness, in order to perceive more clearly the special use and influence of each continent in the development of the whole human race, and to emphasize the interdependence of continents and of people.

The conditions for entering upon the study of the continents are all those for the study of the world with this addition, pupils should have a working knowledge of the earth as a whole. The continent exists as a part, is dependent on its relations as a part for its present characteristics, and cannot be appreciated without a knowledge of the simple world-wide relations, the facts presented by pictures, text, and maps.

Modeling of the continents by the pupils is a means by which they express ideas of relative position, relative height, and relative extent of continental features. The following order in modeling is suggested: 1. Mark the outline and place a thin layer of sand within. Remove the extra sand. 2. To represent a low shore brush the sand at the edge back into the interior. 3. To represent a land mass pile on enough sand to make evident

the relative length, relative width, and relative height of the mass. 4. Represent ranges by ridges proportionally high. 5. Lakes and rivers can be represented well by strings.

Map drawing is of great value and should be in constant use. Fine drawings are not to be desired or expected of the pupils.

The following order in map drawing is suggested and applies equally to coastlines, lakes, rivers, etc. First—present a large outline of the continent, the minor irregularities being omitted, e. g., in North America the western coast is a long concave curve extending from Alaska to Panama; the southeastern coast is four curves, etc.

Observe this coastline map for the general figure of the continent, the proportion of parts of the figure; for the form of special parts, and the proportions of each figure; e. g., each side of the United States; Hudson Bay; Alaska; Gulf of Mexico.

Memorize the form. Draw the form and occasionally describe it.

Compare the form drawn with the form in the mind; correct before erasing; erase wrong lines and brighten the figure.

Second—If the form needs conventionalizing derive with your pupils a diagram to assist them in perceiving the relative position and relative size of the parts of the map. This diagram should be learned as well as the coastline map.

Third—Present the diagram and coastline combined. The relative position of the parts should now be carefully observed, memorized, expressed, and the drawing corrected.

Fourth—Have the coastline drawn without visible diagram. Pupils should be trained to make an outline map of any continent without visible construction lines within two minutes. It is very helpful to limit the time whenever maps are drawn in wholes or parts.

Outline maps should be the frames within which ideas are to be expressed by the pupils. Not all the ideas to be thus expressed by the pupil should be represented on one outline map. In such cases confusion results. There should be a series of maps, each one of which should express the main ideas of some natural division of the subject. Combinations of these maps should be made to show proper relations.

The ways of teaching are not different from those previously described. Pupils should be trained to rely more and more on their own efforts in acquiring knowledge and in reciting connectedly.

Emphasize vigorously the close study and vivid remembrance of pictures; the localization on maps of the pictures studied; the interpretation of maps, i. e., memory of topographic scenes experienced or imagined and the inference of geographic conditions; the careful analysis of text by pupils and the formation of topics; the omission of facts beyond the present experiences and comprehension of pupils; the constant association of nature, picture, map, text; quality of work rather than quantity.

The forms of recitation are like those for the study of the world. Topical recitations should receive special emphasis.

The order of study. In the study of continents pupils should work along lines which present natural relations definitely, as follows: 1st. Brief review of the continent to fix its relations as a part of the whole earth. 2d. Separation of the continents into natural sections. 3d. Study of each section and its relation to the continent. Of each section pupils at once perceive the included features, their relation to each other and usefulness to man. Thus are impressed ideas of the activities of a region whereby it is fitted or unfitted to be the home of man. If the continents are studied according to their natural sections a connection of history and geography becomes feasible and easy.

Political Divisions. When the physical features and

products, etc., of the world were known the partition among the races was taught. Similarly, when the characteristics of the continent are known the partition continents by the nations should be taught. This step should be a partition according to political boundaries of facts already known with the addition of such details of commerce, of government, and other institutions as will make clear the political characteristics of the division. Political maps are now indispensable.

The adaptation of geography to the characteristic interests and activities of childhood has been the purpose controlling the division of the subject and the method of its use thru the seven grades which include the children from five or six to twelve or thirteen years of age. In the remaining grades of the grammar and high schools the pupils are in the adolescent period and the adaptation of the subject for appropriate growth during this period of life presents new problems. The conditions to be met have been stated in the introductory paragraphs of this portion of the report.

The confusion and dissatisfaction which prevails in the present instruction of a adolescent pupils in geography is due chiefly to lack of appreciation of the characteristics of and the import of adolescent life, and secondarily to lack of knowledge on the part of teachers of the content and relation of elementary and of scientific geography. In view of the right of the pupil to first and chief consideration the following quotations are introduced.

Adolescence "is the period of beginnings, the beginning of a more ambitious and generous life, a life having a future wrapped up in it; a transition period of mental storm and stress in which egoism gives way to altruism, romance has charm, and the social, moral, and religious feelings bud and bloom." (Report of the Committee of Fifteen.)

"Whatever appeals to the senses at this period passes over into meditation as never before. The life up to this point has been spent in the realm of the senses. It now awakens in a world of thought. The change may be very sudden and definitely marked. Thought in childhood deals more with isolated objects. In adolescence there is grouping of ideas and combinations never experienced before. Many of those sending returns say that life has a new meaning since they discovered the new relations of things."

"Early adolescence is the special time for the beginning of ideals. They change frequently. One's stage of development can be marked quite accurately by his ideal."

"Closely connected with the widening of apperception, with the rush of new ideas, longings, and change of thought from near to far and change of ideals, is the tendency to plan the future."

"The success and buzz of organizations in the hands of the young people themselves illustrate this spirit of leadership in active operation."

"The enthusiast: youth takes no account of the difficulties to be surmounted, but single-handed starts out to reform religion, politics, social customs, and wrongs of the laboring classes. The reforms thus achieved furnish a striking chapter in history."

"Many things in the study indicate that all the feelings of responsibility, of personality, and worth become full-fledged at this time. On the moral side there is a new and tremendous access of possibilities."

"The returns indicate that adolescents find a delightful and unique sympathy in nature. Nature seems to teach them rest and self-control. They flee to it as a refuge from all the elements that are warring within their own souls. To many it seems to be the very support of life itself. It gives a time for thought and meditation which the awakened soul now demands." "This love of nature should be utilized to develop the scientific spirit in the pupil."

"The growth of the ethical nature and the deep,

broad, intellectual interests root in the emotional life of adolescence. If the instinct emotions are properly guided, they will pass over into permanent intellectual interests. Many interests enthusiastically cultivated mean a wide intellectual horizon."

"The pedagogy of adolescence may be summed up in one sentence, inspire enthusiastic activity." (The Psychology and Pedagogy of Adolescence by E. G. Lancaster; *Pedagogical Seminary*, July, 1897.)

The children of the eighth grade are usually in the transition stage between childhood and adolescence. They continue somewhat former interests and habits and begin new ones. The work as outlined below transfers the emphasis from the physical to the human relations. The attempt is made not to neglect the dominion of nature, but to make prominent the subduing of the earth by man and the interdependence of all peoples, in short, to enable each pupil to believe in his own personality, to find his responsibilities as an individual human being in touch with the whole of life.

IV. The Leading Nations.

EIGHTH GRADE.

The aim in the study of the nations is:

To ascertain with considerable fullness their present status and degrees of progress.

To measure their respective usefulness to the world.

To this end these ideas must pervade the study.

Natural advantages or disadvantages of the geographic conditions.

Intentional use of geographic conditions to facilitate progress.

International relations and their effects.

The ways of teaching are those previously described, much individual research being required and discussions becoming prominent in all phases of work permitting it.

The order of work should vary with environment. The range of thought is suggested as follows:

Personal characteristics of the people. The chief value of this topic is the recognition of the kinship of the nations.

Territory. Boundaries, extent, area.

Position in relation to the world features.

Characteristics of included physical features.

These three topics have marked scientific and esthetic values.

Natural and manufactured products.

Exports, imports.

Exchanging nations.

Commercial centers. Reasons for location, growth, decay.

Commercial highways.

This group of topics should be related constantly to economics.

Institutions, government, religion, social, education, arts.

Colonies.

International relations.

The nation's influence on the world's progress.

This last group of topics is of marked ethical importance and effects altruistic ideals.

Americans, etc. United States.

English. Great Britain, Ireland, Dominion of Canada, India, and Africa.

Germans. Germany. Austria. (Hungary.) Africa.

French. France. Southeast Asia, Africa.

Russians. Russia. Siberia.

V. The State.

EIGHTH AND NINTH GRADES.

The study of the state should begin with the first year of school life and continue to its end.

In the primary grades the first extension of knowledge is from the locality to the vicinity, then to distant portions of the state known to children by observation or from pictures. In grammar grades the relation of the state to the features of the earth as a whole, and to North America should be clearly seen as each topic is considered. In connection with the United States the

past and present influence of the state in national affairs should be definitely taught but not magnified.

Finally the whole should be reviewed and the knowledge arranged in an order which will present distinctly the physical features of the territory, the life and influence of the people.

VI. Comparative Study of the World.

NINTH GRADE.

Many of the children of the ninth grade have fully entered upon the adolescent period. They distinctly recognize themselves as different from the children of younger grades. Their outlook is forward to the field of larger freer life in the high school or in business. Their seeking is for self-realization and for understanding nature and man. In early adolescence the search is not so much for new facts of knowledge as for the meaning of what they now know and do. The various attempts with geography at present interest pupils according to the interpretative power of the teacher. Astronomical geography, or physiography, or commercial geography, or no geography, does not satisfy either teacher or taught. Astronomical geography which does not begin with astronomy (which in its elementary form is distinctly continuous outdoor study of the heavenly bodies) but which induces juggling with globes and glibness with text, blinds the eyes to celestial glory and closes a way of the mind and soul to the infinite. Physiography which belies its name by neglecting or refusing nature, and by abuse of the text-book lessens love of nature, kills the scientific spirit, and denies the learner his right to understand the dominion of nature over man and the laws of physical life upon the earth. Commercial geography which wastes effort in doing again what has been done already, which displays a few exchanges and routes without causes, which is totally deaf to the hum of local industry and blind to the rush of transportation is futile and worse in that the pupil finds not his place in the community, is not alive to thrift and waste, learns not of true economy, perceives not his responsibilities, and is denied growth of his altruistic ideals of life.

Better no geography in the ninth grade than such travesties on education which deny the right to growth in reason, reverence, and altruism. Yet any one of these aspects of geography when used in accord with adolescent life and pedagogic sense is capable of stimulating that kind and measure of growth which makes for active peace and toward richness and ripeness of life.

There is another phase of geographical thought which is perhaps more appropriate for pupils in early adolescence, namely, the Comparative Study of the World.

As has been stated these learners know much but understand little, and they are concerned more about finding themselves in life than promoting society, more about organizing their present knowledge than investigating new realms. This finding of self in society, this organization of experiences is largely the result of comparison, with consequent conclusions and partial generalizations, directed by intelligent sympathy.

This comparative study is also in accordance with sound psychological and pedagogical principles. We can pass from elementary aspects to scientific only by way of comparison, generalization, and classification. So that both the growth of the early adolescent and the progressive development of the subject seem to require the comparative process.

The term comparative geography is not new. More than fifty years ago Ritter and Guyot defined the scope of geography, declared its principles, and illuminated them with applications which, for their pedagogic value remain unsurpassed. Scientific discoveries of the last half century impose upon us the selection of different data and the impression of other conclusions than theirs,

but the fundamental purposes and processes they proclaimed and practiced have been strengthened in value by their use. (See note 4.)

The Ways and Means. Topics should be assigned to pupils individually or in small groups. They should recall known facts, search for new ones, and display their data by editing globes and maps, by the "parallel columns," and by descriptive text and illustrative pictures. Conclusions thus reached should be presented to the class by the pupil, who then explains his data by the use of the globes, maps, or other means. The class should be given opportunity to comment on the data presented and when the valuable facts have been selected the class should be held responsible for their assimilation, and should be tested for content of knowledge and degree of power.

The function of the teacher will be to stimulate each child to enthusiastic activity, to furnish individuals or the class necessary data from other subjects, to teach discrimination and judgment as to data gathered and conclusions reached, to secure proportional emphasis and coherence of the various parts studied.

This comparative study necessitates the constant use of globes, world maps, and sectional maps. Mercator's projection should be used with globes to display facts of the northern and southern hemispheres which are to be compared. Individual outline maps on the Mercator and polar projections will be needed constantly in doing the kind of work described. Reference books in considerable variety must be at hand. Public libraries must be drawn upon freely.

The order of topics is not essential. It should depend upon the geographical environment to which the pupils have been subject and upon the means of study at hand. The personal interests of many pupils will determine choice. The teacher should display several illustrative topical analyses with their related maps, parallel columns, descriptive text, and pictures, and a list of related topics for similar treatment. In this way a division of the subject is appropriately studied and coherence of the whole secured. The sequence of coast, relief, drainage, climate, etc., etc., need not be, cannot be followed if individual research is encouraged. Such an order is of value in a synthetic summary. The closing of comparative geography with ninth grade pupils should be such a summary and should include the conclusions and more or less partial generalizations which have been reached.

Just as the study of the world in the fifth grade enabled pupils to make a distribution and correlation of facts previously gathered and gave them world-wide views of life, so the comparative study of the world organizes into world unity the new collections of facts which have been made by the individual in relation to his geographical and social environment.

SCIENTIFIC GEOGRAPHY.

The comparative geography indicated for the ninth grade is the transition from elementary to scientific geography. The less obvious activities and relations, the causes and effects, the classes, principles, and laws of geographic phenomena are chiefly products of comparison, generalization, and reasoning, and are the content of scientific geography.

The function of geography in the high school is to satisfy the needs of the middle portion of adolescent life. The comparative process produces a degree of organization of knowledge which enables the student to cultivate that true scientific spirit and method which strengthens all thought. He analyzes the subject, views the parts more discriminatingly, and by reasoning finds that geography is conditioned upon some sciences and is a condition for others. Apprehension of causal relations becomes strong and the laws of geographic phenomena make clear and certain the interdependence of geographic phenomena, the control of earth over man, and man's power to modify the direction of some of the earth forces. The interdependence of men takes on new meaning and power, and in his adult-like under-

Note 4. No better books in English than Ritter's *Comparative Geography and Geographical Studies* and Guyot's *Earth and Man* exists for displaying the aims and methods of this portion of Geography. They "inspire enthusiastic activity."

standing of geographic phenomena the adolescent finds a new understanding of his own life and opportunities.

Because of the relation which geography holds to the sciences, to history, and to economics, the correlation within the limits of the course in scientific geography should be controlled:

1. By the adolescent's immediate interests and by the requirements of his mature life.
2. By the knowledge and power and interpretative skill of the teacher.
3. By the present demands of individual, social, national life.
4. In some measure by the equipment of the school.

If these criteria be kept in mind undue stress will not be given to astronomical geography, or physiography, or to commercial geography. The present tendency on the part of instructors is to magnify the scientific aspect, and on the part of the public to intensify the economic relations. In a high school the course in geography must avoid the investigations which belong to college courses and the processes which belong to technical education. (See note 5.)

Reference Books.

GENERAL GEOGRAPHY.

Comparative Geography, Ritter; American Book Co.
Earth and Man, Guyot; American Book Co.
Compendium of Geography and Travel, 6 parts, one for each continent; Stanford, London; Willard Small, Boston.
Geography; Physical, Historical, and Descriptive, Keith Johnston; Stanford, London; Willard Small, Boston.
Lectures on Geography, Strachey; Macmillan Co.
Geography of the British Isles, Geikie; Macmillan Co.
Lessons in the New Geography, Trotter; D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
International Geography, Mill; D. Appleton & Co.
Actual Africa, Vincent; D. Appleton & Co.

PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY, METEOROLOGY, GEOLOGY.

The names of a few text-books of exceptional value for scientific or pedagogical reasons have been included.
Elementary Lessons in Physical Geography, Geikie; Macmillan Co.

Eclectic Physical Geography; Hinman; American Book Co.
Appleton's Physical Geography, American Book Co.
Physical Geography, Davis; Ginn & Co.
Geographical Illustrations, W. M. Davis; Harvard university.
Earth Sculpture, Geikie; G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Outlines of Earth's History, Shaler; D. Appleton & Co.
Physiography, Huxley; Macmillan Co.
Realm of Nature, Mill; Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Physical Geography, Guyot; American Book Co.
National Geographic Monographs; American Book Co.
Story of the Hills, Hutchinson; Macmillan Co.
Beauties of Nature, Lubbock; Macmillan Co.
Short Studies in Nature Knowledge, Gee; Macmillan Co.
Nature for Its Own Sake, Van Dyke; Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Aspects of the Earth, Shaler; Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Sea and Land, Shaler; Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Domesticated Animals, Shaler; Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Nature and Man in America, Shaler; Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Story of Our Continent, Shaler; Ginn & Co., Boston.
Elementary Meteorology, Davis; Ginn & Co.
Forms of Water, Tyndall; D. Appleton & Co.
Weather, Abercrombie; D. Appleton & Co.
First Book in Geology, Shaler; D. C. Heath & Co.
Earth and Its Story, Heilprin; Silver, Burdett & Co.
Geological Story Briefly Told, Dana.
Geological Sketches, Geikie; Macmillan Co.
Elementary Geology, Tarr; Macmillan Co.
Earth's History, Roberts; Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Classbook of Geology, Geikie; Macmillan Co.

Note 5. The most suggestive course of study which has come to notice is that by Prof. Richard E. Dodge, of the Teachers College, New York, and published in the Teachers College Record for March, 1901, and in Vol. V., Nos. 6, 7, 8, of the Journal of School Geography. The order and coherence are of exceptional merit. If one questions the emphasis on physiographic relations he can easily select from the wealth of topics such as will meet his own needs. For hints as to content and scientific method in the study of the commercial aspects of geography, Clow's Introduction to the Study of Commerce is wisely suggestive.

Elements of Geology, Le Conte; D. Appleton & Co.
Ice Age in North America, Wright; D. Appleton & Co.
Rivers of North America, Russell; G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Lakes of North America, Russell; Ginn & Co.
Glaciers of North America, Russell; Ginn & Co.
Volcanoes of North America, Russell; Ginn & Co.
Common Minerals and Rocks, Crosby; D. C. Heath & Co.
Dynamical and Structural Geology, Crosby; Boston Society of Natural History.
Coal and Coal Mines, Greene; Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston.
Formation of Vegetable Mould, Darwin; D. Appleton & Co.
Island Life, Wallace; Macmillan Co.

COMMERCIAL, HISTORIC, AND ECONOMIC.

Manual of Commerce, Brown; C. A. Nichols & Co., Springfield, Mass.
A Smaller Commercial Geography, Chisholm; Longmans, Green & Co., New York.
Atlas of Commercial Geography, Bartholemew; C. J. Clay & Sons, London; Willard Small, Boston.
Handbook of Commercial Geography, Chisholm; Longmans, Green & Co., New York.
Commercial Geography, Gonner; Macmillan Co.
Applied Geography, Keltie; George Philip & Son.
National Resources of the United States, Patton; D. Appleton & Co.
Statesman's Year Book, Keltie; Macmillan Co.
Massachusetts Year Book, Roe; F. S. Blanchard & Co., Worcester.
Commercial Year Book, Annual, New York.
Manuals of Commerce, 5 vols., Yeats; George Philip & Son, London. Boston School Supply Co., Boston.
U. S. Government Publications.
Philadelphia Commercial Museum publications.
Great American Industries, W. F. Rocheleau, 3 vols. I. Minerals. II. Products of the Soil. III. Manufacturers. A. Flanagan, Chicago.
Economics and Industrial History, Thurston; Scott, Foresman & Co.
Introduction to Study of Economics, Bullock; Silver, Burdett & Co.
Elementary Economics, Davenport; Macmillan Co.

TEACHING OF GEOGRAPHY.

The Teaching of Geography, Geikie; Macmillan Co.
How to Study Geography, Parker; D. Appleton & Co.
Geography and Sand Modelling, Frye; Ginn & Co.
Methods and Aids in Geography, King; Lee & Shepard, Boston.
Teachers' Outline of Elementary Geography, Murdock; J. L. Hammett Co., Boston.
The New Basis of Geography, Redway; Macmillan Co.
Manual of Geography, Redway; D. C. Heath & Co.
Reproduction of Geographical Forms, Redway; D. C. Heath & Co.
Maps and Map Drawing, Elderton; Macmillan Co.
Historical Geography of the United States, MacCoun.
Special Method in Geography, McMurtry; Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.
Suggestions on Teaching Geography, McCormick; Public School Publishing Co., Bloomington, Ill.
Oswego Methods in Geography, Farnham; C. W. Bardeen.
Introduction to Study of Commerce, Clow; Silver, Burdett & Co.
Teaching of Geography in Switzerland and North Italy, C. J. Clay & Son, London.

The Right Spirit.

One who really enters into the spirit of teaching, says the *Arkansas School Journal* for December, must be thoughtful, observant, progressive. The business is to him no routine play merely, but a grand opportunity of service of the highest kind, such as quickens the whole nature of those under his charge, prepares them for intelligent living, and helps them to realize the best possibilities in them. He brings them to co-operate with him in the effort to make the most of their opportunities. He is alive and constantly learning both from books and from the world of men and things. He is developing his own judgment and practical sense while helping on that of his pupils. He makes himself felt in a community by his good sense, sound judgment, and kindness. He is a leader.

The Educational Outlook.

Progress in Indian Education.

Extracts from the report of Mr. W. A. Jones, Indian commissioner, were published in THE SCHOOL JOURNAL of December 14. It will be remembered that Mr. Jones states it as his opinion that the education of the Indian, as at present conducted, is a failure. Apropos of this subject, the report of Miss Estelle Reel, superintendent of Indian schools, which, by-the-by, is a remarkable document, is timely and suggestive. Miss Reel certainly does not consider the education of the Indian a failure by any means.

Miss Reel has been at the head of the Indian schools for three years. As she has spent the greater part of that time in the field she is as familiar with existing conditions as any one could possibly be after three years' study. In fact, she has traveled 65,000 miles to this end.

A few quotations from the report which give Miss Reel's opinions of the work done in various schools are of interest in this connection. She says:

Phoenix, Ariz.—Year by year the attendance of pupils has increased until now there are more than 700 enrolled. The literary and industrial training here is excellent. A large number of the pupils obtain practical training during the summer by means of the outing system, and the civilizing influences received by contact with the home life of good white citizens cannot be overestimated.

Fort Lewis, Col.—The general condition and management of the school is excellent. The literary instruction is extremely good, and all of the industrial departments are giving practical instruction in their respective branches. The principal occupations of the Indians of this locality is agriculture and stock-raising, and as the Indian boys are good cattlemen they find ready employment on the ranches in the vicinity.

Seneca, Ind. T.—Much of the 160 acres of land belonging to this school is unsuited for the raising of grain, but all that pertains to a farm life is being taught the children in a practical way. The girls are being instructed in the duties of housekeeping and the care of the dairy. The literary work is satisfactory, and the children are receiving a good common school education. The superintendent is devoting considerable time and energy toward inducing these Indians to take care of their property and become good citizens.

Haskell Institute, Kan.—Practical instruction is given in the literary and industrial branches, and the school also has a normal and commercial department. There are about 650 acres in the school farm, which is well stocked with horses, cattle, and swine. The principal crops raised are corn, wheat, oats, hay, alfalfa, apples, strawberries, etc. All the work of cultivating the farm and garden and caring for the stock is done by the Indian boys under the directions of capable instructors.

Salem, Ore.—This is one of the largest and best-equipped schools in the West. The course of study outlines advanced work in all that pertains to general knowledge sufficient to prepare pupils for the everyday walks of life. Wagon making, blacksmithing, painting, harness making, shoemaking, carpentry, engineering, gardening, stock raising, and farming are taught in a practical manner.

Carlisle, Pa.—This is the largest Indian school in the United States, the enrollment being more than 1,000. The school is admirably equipped, and the literary and industrial departments are presided over by a competent corps of teachers. Useful trades are taught the boys, while the girls are trained in the duties of housekeeping. Practical instruction is also obtained thru the outing system, which had its origin with Colonel Pratt. By this system the students are employed in good white families during a portion of the year. Its operation has been so successful that a number of the other schools have introduced it.

Hampton Institute, Va.—The keynote of the institution is "learning by doing." Agriculture, dairying, and the useful trades are taught the boys, and the girls are instructed in gardening, woodwork, sewing, cooking, and laundering.

The report states that a large percentage (at least 76 per cent.) make good average citizens. In order that they may become self-supporting citizens as speedily as possible, the boys are taught agriculture, dairying, cook-

ing, and housekeeping. As it is thru agriculture that the great majority of Indians must attain their independence, it is necessary that this training be given in order that an Indian youth may be able to cultivate his land, build farm buildings and fences, shoe his horses, mend his implements, and make other necessary repairs.

AGRICULTURE.

First Year.—Attention to domestic animals and fowls. Gardening.

Second Year.—Given light chores to perform. Assist in planting, hoeing, raking.

Third Year.—Care of stables, feeding animals, driving, aiding in cultivation of crops.

Fourth Year.—Each boy cares for his own garden. Where possible have model farm of two, three, or four acres, dividing proceeds among the boys having it in charge. Rotation of crops.

Fifth Year.—Improvement and cultivation of seeds, irrigation, tillage, plowing, harrowing, rolling, dry-weather farming.

Sixth Year.—Give responsibility for care of stock, stables, barn. Hot beds, fruit growing.

ARITHMETIC.

First Year.—Ordinal numbers, special exercises for sense-training and enlargement of judgment. Forty-five primary combinations.

Second Year.—Simple fractions, measures, etc.

Third Year.—Simple ratios, linear measure, United States money.

Fourth Year.—Review, practical work, time.

Fifth Year.—Multiplication and division. Tables.

Sixth Year.—Problems of daily life.

COOKING AND BAKERY.

Making bread, pastry, soups, cooking meats, etc. Properties of wheat, yeast, etc. Care of fire and oven. Butter and cheese. Disposal of refuse.

BASKETRY.

First Year.—Mats for floor, doll furniture, etc.

Second Year.—Better mats and doll furniture, seats in old chairs.

Third Year.—Real baskets.

BLACKSMITHING.

First Year.—Care of shop, welding small bolts, gate hooks, hasps, etc.

Second Year.—Horse shoeing, simple farming implements, chains, hardening iron and tempering steel, parts of wagon.

Third Year.—Drawing cast steel, forging and tempering, making blacksmithing tools, wagon-making and repairing, construction of bellows.

CANING.

Teach methods of caning chairs neatly and durably.

CARPENTRY.

First Year.—Accessories of doll's house. Toy-making.

Second Year.—Measures, geometrical figures, whittling, using hammer, sand-papering.

Third Year.—Joinery, making useful articles.

Fourth Year.—Joinery, shop work, care of tools, woods, plastering, bricklaying.

Fifth Year.—Calculating materials, etc.

ENGINEERING.

First Year.—Oiling shafting, wheeling out ashes, and getting coal. Pipe fitting. Packing, repairing, and cleaning boiler. Proper care of fires.

Second Year.—Running engine, dynamos, and motors.

Third Year.—Setting and connecting radiators, making coils of pipe, piping dwellings, laying pipes underground, general plumbing, drainage.

GEOGRAPHY.

Begin with school grounds. Geography of reservation. Industries according to locality. Soils and min-

erals. Drawings of designs, use for pottery, blankets, baskets.

HARNESS MAKING.

First Year.—Making wax ends, sewing leather. Plain work, as traces, hip straps, and halters.

Second Year.—Work on straps continued. Bridle making.

Third Year.—Cutting and fitting harness. Estimating cost of leather, etc.

HISTORY.

Legends of tribe. What Indian life should be. History of United States.

HOUSEKEEPING.

Attention to food, water, air, furniture, manners, and morals of family. Cooking, making wearing apparel.

LAUNDRY.

Proper place and receptacle for soiled linen. Washing, rinsing, drying clothes, ironing, care of fires.

MUSIC.

Position of body and throat in singing, rote and sight singing, especially patriotic songs.

NATURE STUDY.

First Year.—Collecting and labeling seeds. Selecting seeds for sowing. Drying fruits, corn, etc.

Second Year. Preserving fruits for "doll's use." Cultivation of fruit trees. Raising cabbage and tomato plants for school garden. Charge of poultry. Study of domestic animals.

Third Year.—Use of flowers. Plant diseases. Injurious insects. Spraying trees. Canning fruits and vegetables.

Fourth and Fifth Years.—Soils, and relation to plant life.

Sixth Year.—Farm accounts and business forms. Crops—corn, wheat, seed.

Seventh Year.—Estimates and plans for work, quantity of seed, etc.

PAINTING.

Three Years.—Cleaning, sand papering, puttying, mixing paints, painting wagons, wall-papering, calcimining, filling, staining, and finishing woods.

PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE.

General laws of hygiene, nursing, ventilation, prevention of tuberculosis.

PRINTING.

Running small job press, composing, distributing type, practice in making up forms, proofreading, job work.

READING, LANGUAGE, AND SUB-PRIMARY WORK.

First Year.—Teaching the English language thru occupations, such as making dolls' clothing, furnishing doll's house, sewing, cooking, planting seeds, etc.

Second Year.—Object lessons. Learning to read.

Third, Fourth, and Fifth Years.—Reading. Make cook book. Make book of drawings of things studied. Dictation lessons of various kinds.

SEWING.

First Year.—Make useful articles. Drill in use of thimble, threading needle, and various stitches.

Second Year.—Draft patterns for dolls' clothes. Work to be accomplished: Hose darned, clothes mended, quilt made, knitting, crocheting, etc.

Third Year.—Buttonholes, patching and darning, drafting, and making union suit, fancy stitcher.

Fourth and Fifth Years.—Cutting by measurement and advanced work.

SHOEMAKING.

First Year.—Stitching, use of awl, practice on different stitches.

Second Year.—Make a complete shoe.

Third Year.—Assist in teaching others.

SPELLING.

As in ordinary schools.

TAILORING.

First Year.—Practice in less difficult stitches. Stitching. Repair work and pockets. Making trousers.

Second Year.—Helper to beginners. Cleaning and pressing. Taking measurements and drafting patterns.

Third Year.—Advanced work.

UPHOLSTERING.

All should be taught this art.

CONCLUSIONS.

This course of study, as worked out by Miss Reel, is a masterpiece in its way. The special methods suggested to render the various branches applicable to the special needs of the Indian have evidently been worked out with great care, and are the result of practical experience. Whatever may have been accomplished for the Indian by the government schools in the past—and Miss Reel evidently considers the work as far from being a failure—the education of the Indian in the future, if the course outlined above is carried out, is certain to redound to the practical and lasting benefit of the entire Indian race.

Education in the Islands.

The annual report of the Philippine islands as made by the Taft commission, covering the period from December, 1900 to October, 1901, embodies a full account of educational conditions as systematized by Supt. F. W. Atkinson.

The English language, says the report, is the basis of all public instruction, and nearly one thousand trained teachers from the United States have already been put to work in the towns and cities of the pacified provinces. Applications for teachers have been received from many towns where it has not yet been possible to send them. The greatest eagerness is shown among the natives to obtain a knowledge of English and a general primary education. In Manila secondary schools have been established, a normal school is engaged in the instruction of Filipino teachers, and night schools are holding regular sessions, with eighteen hundred pupils. Manual training schools and agricultural colleges are a part of the project which is being carried out for educating the people to better methods of labor and production. In the night schools of Manila are classes in typewriting and shorthand and for preparing students for civil service examinations. Recently instruction in telegraphy has been begun, with the aid of the signal department of the army, and it is proposed to gradually transfer the telegraphic service from the army to the civil government by provinces as young Filipinos become sufficiently competent to act as operators. The eagerness of the people to learn English and adapt themselves to the new conditions was shown in a striking manner by the opening of the normal school last spring. The school was open only from April 10 to May 10. It was estimated that there would not be more than three hundred and fifty Filipino teachers in attendance, but on the opening day the number enrolled was 450, the number eventually enrolled being over 600. It was found necessary to seek additional buildings, and results were obtained by the short term which are still bearing fruit in the education of the Filipino people.

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In and Around New York City.

During the week just closed and in the course of the coming week, the following scientific societies have, or will have, held meetings at Columbia university. The American Mathematical society, the American Physical society, the Society of Plant Physiology and Morphology, the Society for Biblical Exegesis, and the Archaeological Institute of America.

It is probable, according to report, that Prof. C. E. Franklin, of the Albany (N. Y.) training school, will be the new associate superintendent of Queens.

Sir Robert S. Ball, F. R. S., Lowdean professor of astronomy and geometry in Cambridge university, England, and formerly royal astronomer of Ireland, will lecture in Havemeyer hall, Columbia university, Jan. 10, at 3.30 P. M. His subject will be, "The Cause of an Ice Age." Admission will be free to the public.

The annual dinner of the General Association of Graduates of New York State Normal schools will be held at the Aldine club on the evening of Jan. 18. Speakers of national reputation will respond to toasts, and a large attendance is assured. The board of directors consists of two graduates from each of the twelve schools besides the general officers. Mr. Charles O. Dewey, 747 Macon street, Brooklyn, is president; Mr. Fred A. Duncan, 840 East 141st street, Manhattan, secretary-treasurer.

A feature of the annual report of Chancellor McCracken, of New York university, to be issued in January, will be a list of books published by professors since the last quadrennial report in 1897. This shows that ten professors of university college have published eleven books and fifty-eight articles, while fifty-three professors in the university have written books or articles.

The regular monthly meeting of the Kraus Alumni Kindergarten association was held at the Tuxedo, Dec. 14. The subject under consideration was "The Child as Artist," presented by Mr. Fritz Koch. Mr. Koch dealt with art purely from the standpoint of the child. It appeals, he said, to the child first as an expression of pleasure; second, as an element of change; third, as a desire for imitating others. Mr. Koch advanced the theory that object drawing is not natural for the very young child. The carrying out of his mental image so absorbs all his attention that the details of an object have little interest for him in the early stages of his development. Investigation has proved that forty-five per cent. of the child's instructive drawing is that of the human figure.

Principals' Licenses.

The new eligible list for women principals, as issued by Superintendent Maxwell and the board of examiners, includes the following names:

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Clara C. Calkins, 27 Halsey street, Brooklyn.

Sarah Goldie, 13 East 127th street, Manhattan; P. S. 25, G. D., Miss H. A. Gill, principal.

Lizzie I. Dowling, 82 Laight street, Manhattan; P. S. 20, B. D., Alexander Morehouse, principal.

Anna A. Short, 120 Washington place, Manhattan, 23, Gr. D., Joseph H. Wade, principal.

Caroline R. Gipner, 7 East Eighty-seventh street, Manhattan; P. S. 14, G. D., Miss Olivia J. Hall, principal.

Mrs. Annie M. Atkinson, 236 West 130th street, Manhattan; P. S. 103, B. D., James M. Kieran, principal.

Margaret A. Regan, 9 West 128th street, Manhattan.

Susie A. Griffin, 123 Clymer street, Brooklyn; P. S. 2, P. D., Mrs. Kate F. Bell, principal.

Mary A. Underhill, 2061 Madison avenue, Manhattan; P. S. 6, B. D., Wilbur F. Hudson, principal.

Mary F. Maguire, 325 Central Park West, Manhattan; P. S. 16, J. H. Zabriskie, principal.

Carrie Ikelheimer, 117 East Fifty-sixth street, Manhattan; P. S. 96, Mrs. Eliza S. Pell, principal.

Mrs. Anna G. Bauer, 328 West 113th street, Manhattan. P. S. 54, Miss Margaret Viklein, principal.

Mrs. Mary C. Donohue, 438 East Fifty-seventh street, Manhattan; P. S. 82, B. D., H. J. Heidema, principal.

Matilda C. Skene, 411 Lockwood street, Astoria; P. S. 10 E. R. Berkens, principal.

May Jackson, 200 West 105th street, Manhattan; P. S. 54, G. D., Miss M. Uhlein, principal.

Eugenie C. Levie, 108 East Ninety-first street, Manhattan; P. S. 73, G. D., Miss Mary J. Farmer, principal.

Prizes for Essays.

The local chapter of the Society of Colonial Dames offers a cash prize of \$50 and a silver medal to the student in Teachers college presenting the best essay upon one of the five following subjects:

1. The West India trade in colonial times.
2. Andros.
3. The relations of England and Spain in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, with particular reference to colonial settlements.
4. The growth of self-government in New York to the adoption of the constitution.
5. The efficient man of colonial times and the character of his training, as illustrated in the life of some historical character.

Office Hours at Headquarters.

The regular office hours when City Superintendent Maxwell and the members of the Board of Examiners may be seen without previous appointment are as follows:

Mr. Maxwell—Tuesdays, Wednesdays, and Thursdays, 3.00-5.00 P. M.; Saturdays, 9.00 A. M. to 12 M.

Mr. Bynes—Wednesdays, 2.00-4.30 P. M.

Mr. Hervey—Tuesdays, 2.00-4.30 P. M. Saturdays, 9.00 A. M., to 12 M.

Mr. O'Connell—Fridays, 2.00-4.30 P. M.

Mr. Smith—Thursdays, 2.00-4.30 P. M.

New England Notes.

Massachusetts Schoolmasters' Club.

BOSTON, MASS.—This association of prominent educators of the state dined at Hotel Brunswick, December 14, celebrating the occasion as "ladies' night." Twenty-four new members were admitted, and it was decided to limit the number of active members to three hundred. The venerable Nathaniel T. Allen, of West Newton, was made an honorary member.

The topic for discussion, "Progressive Education," was opened by Miss Laura Fisher, director of kindergartens, Boston. She held that the kindergartens have placed children in a new position, one that is natural to their development; that they have emphasized constructive education; that they have shown the place of play in education; and finally, that they have reacted upon the young woman teacher and induced a proper development of thought.

Miss Sarah Louise Arnold, supervisor of Boston, held that the work of the elementary schools must be estimated qualitatively. The pupils in them should be prepared to leave school, if this be necessary at that stage, strengthened mentally and with character to a certain extent uplifted.

Miss Laura A. Knott, principal of Bradford academy, showed that the first duty of the teacher to a scholar is to discover the bent of his mind and train along that line. Then the child must be taught to think and to acquire from the surrounding world material for thought. But over and above all, the teacher must aim to develop the highest character.

Miss Mary G. Woolley, president of Mount Holyoke college, compared the education demanded for woman with that for man. The college must stand for scholarship, and ere long women will take their place with men in the highest scholarship.

Masters' Association.

The Boston Masters' Association met December 2 in the school committee rooms and spent about two hours discussing the teaching of physics in the grammar schools. The principal addresses were given by

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CHICAGO.

Messrs. F. Morton King, Joseph G. Bassett, and William E. C. Rich. At the close of the discussion, about forty members went to the Parker House and dined, with Lieutenant-Governor Bates as a guest. The after dinner speeches paid well-deserved encomiums upon the work done in the trade school of the Charitable Mechanic association, in which boys are taught the several trades in the most scientific manner. This is far better than the old system of apprenticeship.

Mr. Artemus Wiswall, for twenty-seven years master of the schools in what is now the Charles Sumner district, Roslindale, died December 1 at the home of his son, George B. Wiswall, Oak Hill, Newton, where he was visiting. Mr. Wiswall was born February 11, 1825, in a house on the opposite side of the street from that in which he died. He was graduated from the normal school, Bridgewater, in 1845. He commenced teaching when only sixteen, in the district schools of Maine. Later he taught in Bridgewater, Stoughton, and Newton. In February 1870, he was appointed master of the old Florence street grammar school, Roslindale, then a school of about 100 pupils, and he retired February 1, 1897, then master of the Charles Sumner school, the same district, when the pupils numbered 2,000. He was a remarkably conscientious teacher and won the love of all the children.

The corporation of Simmons college held a meeting December 6 and elected Prof. Henry Lefavour, of Williams college, president. Dr. Lefavour was born at Salem in 1862, and after receiving his early education in the public schools of that city, he entered Williams college and was graduated in 1883. He taught at Williston seminary for a year, when he was made instructor at Williams. In the year 1888, he was elected professor of physics; but before entering upon its duties, he studied at Berlin for two years, receiving the degree of Ph.D. Since 1897, he has been the Dean of Williams. Miss Sarah L. Arnold, of the board of supervisors, was also elected dean of the college. These two officers are expected to commence their duties January 1.

Massachusetts Items.

The children in the Boston public schools, and their teachers as well, are rejoicing over a lengthened vacation for the holidays. The school board has cut two days from the end of the first term, closing the schools on Friday instead of the day before Christmas; while they have extended the recess to the end of the week after New Year's day.

CAMBRIDGE.—At the last meeting of the school board the physical instructor, Miss Sarah E. Boudrene, stirred up considerable commotion by a communication in which she said, "Obedience is not a characteristic of Cambridge scholars." Several members of the board took the ground that this is an unwarranted slander on the schools. It was at first proposed to return the communication as improper; but after considerable discussion it was deemed best to place the paper on file and direct the superintendent to take measures to develop the proper spirit of obedience where it is lacking. Miss Boudrene stated further that "in one room thirty of the forty pupils could not touch the floor with their feet when sitting at the desks." This last statement was not only affirmed by members of the board, but one of them stated that there are three hundred children in the city in precisely that condition. The board can do nothing to remedy it since all furnishings are supplied by the city council. This shows the difficulty of managing matters of immediate need when the department of supplies is independent of the school board.

At the same meeting Miss Bessie W. Howard was appointed teacher of physical culture in the English high and Latin schools. Miss Leila F. Drake resigned

her position in the Morse school, and Miss Mary E. Warren appointed to the place. Misses Margaret M. Brosnahan, of the Wellington school, and Grace Morgan, of the Boardman, also resigned. Miss Mary A. Driscoll was appointed a teacher in the Merrill school. Miss Grace Clark, in the Putnam school; Misses Winifred V. Cobb and Annie L. Prince, in the Harvard school; Miss Elizabeth M. Crowley, in the Willard school; Miss Julia L. Faunce, in the Peabody school; and Miss Lillian C. Burbank, in the Webster school.

Connecticut.

BRIDGEPORT, CONN.—The Polytechnical school, which has been in operation here for many years, seems likely to close its doors for lack of support. Nearly all the members of the faculty have resigned for lack of funds to pay their salaries. Tho a private institution, it has received an annual appropriation from the city. It would seem that a great manufacturing city like Bridgeport has need for such an institution.

Philadelphia.

The school appropriation bill has been cut very largely. The estimate for salaries has been reduced from \$2,603,480, which was asked, to 2,570,000. This will take off the \$17,900 asked for increase of salaries in the manual training schools, about \$6,000 for increases due to promotion of teachers in the Central high school, and cut in half the estimate of \$20,000 for new teachers to be employed during the year.

The appropriation for alterations and improvements, for which the board of education asked \$393,850, was cut to \$80,000. For books, stationery, etc., for which \$150,000 was allowed this year, \$125,000 has been appropriated. The sum of \$60,000 is given for night schools, as opposed to \$80,000 this year. The \$1,000,000 asked for new school buildings is reduced to \$100,000.

The committee on elementary schools of the board of education is of the opinion that leave of absence in case of continuous sickness should not be extended beyond one year. Cases in which leave of absence has been extended for two or more years have multiplied to such an extent that it is deemed advisable, in the interests of the schools, to remove the privilege entirely.

A resolution has been adopted by the committee on elementary schools dispensing with afternoon recess. The time thus saved will be devoted to physical culture exercises.

Measures are under consideration for relief from the overcrowding in the schools of the second, third, and fourth sections. More teachers are needed in the second and third sections. Statistics furnished by Miss Wright show that in the Uebinger school the teachers number twenty-four while the actual average attendance of pupils is 1,127, or a surplus of 160 on the basis of forty to a teacher. In the Wharton school there are thirty-four teachers, attendance is 1,684, an excess of 324 pupils. Of the first grade pupils 231 are in a building rented for school purposes, where on wintry days it is impossible to raise the temperature above sixty degrees. There are ninety-three in one room and eighty-four in another. Similar conditions exist in several other schools.

The Rev. Hugh T. Henry has been appointed rector of the Catholic high school, by Archbishop Ryan. Father Henry, who is a native of Philadelphia, has been a professor in Overbrook seminary for the past twelve years.

Pennsylvania Notes.

All but ten men of the 340 teachers of Somerset county were present at the county institute recently held. The instructors were: State Supt. Nathan C. Schaeffer; Dr. A. J. Kinnman, of Worcester, Mass.; Dr. E. L. Kemp, East Stroudsburg; Dr. L. Harris Loag, Bed-

ford, N. Y.; Prof. J. D. Meese, California; Prof. I. D. Griss, musical instructor. The meetings were characterized by enthusiasm. Somerset is alive in an educational way. The increase in school expenditures during the year was \$2,602.47.

The directors' convention which was held at the same time discussed the following subjects: "True Economy in the Use of Text-Books"; "The Compulsory Attendance Law and How to Enforce It"; "Supervision by Directors"; "Grading Salaries of Teachers"; "The Organization of Township High Schools and School Libraries."

Mr. H. M. Berkley, Rev. M. S. Romig, and Dr. W. S. Mountain were appointed delegates to the state directors' convention to be held at Harrisburg in February, 1902, with instructions to use their efforts to secure such legislation as will allow boards of directors to pay out of the public money the expenses of at least two representatives from each board to attend the sessions of the county institute.

A largely attended teachers' institute of Center county closed Dec. 12. Superintendent Gramley knows how to get the teachers out, everyone in the county being present. The directors' convention was represented by about seventy-five directors from different parts of the county, and their deliberations were of a significant character. Senator Heinle, of the Bellefonte school board read an excellent paper on "Recent Legislation" relating to the public schools and the duties of directors under the same. Mr. Heinle advocated the centralizing of the district schools, abandoning the sub-district schools and forming township high schools. He clearly showed how the efficiency of the schools would be increased with very little, if any, additional expense. Col. David Fortney, also of the Bellefonte school board, delivered a forcible address on the same subject and the compulsory attendance law. He showed how directors are neglecting their duties and violating their oaths by not enforcing this law.

Hon. W. C. Heinle, Col. D. Fortney, S. W. Smith, Wm. M. Allison, and Supt. C. L. Gramley were appointed delegates to the state directors' convention.

Told in Brief.

NYACK, N. Y.—Andrew Carnegie has offered to give this town \$15,000 for a public library building, provided the residents will guarantee \$1,500 a year to maintain the institution and furnish a site for the building, the offer will doubtless be accepted.

PATERSON, N. J.—A textile school for the education of young people desiring to enter the silk industry will soon be started by the local Silk Manufacturers' association. A building has been leased and the association has appropriated \$3,000 with which to start. All departments of the silk trade will be taught in the school.

Mrs. Jennie C. Croly, widely known by her pen name, "Jennie June," died Dec. 23, of heart failure. Mrs. Croly was the daughter of a Unitarian minister, and was born in England. She began to write at an early age, contributing to the papers with which her husband, who was a newspaper man, was connected. Mrs. Croly conducted departments in several periodicals and corresponded with others. She is said to have introduced the "syndicate" system. She was the founder of Sorosis, and of the New York Woman's Press Club.

WELLESLEY, MASS.—Pres. Caroline Hazard, of Wellesley, has announced a gift to the college of \$150,000 from John D. Rockefeller, to be used as a dormitory and central heating plant. The gift is made on condition that an equal amount be added to the college endowment before the next commencement day.

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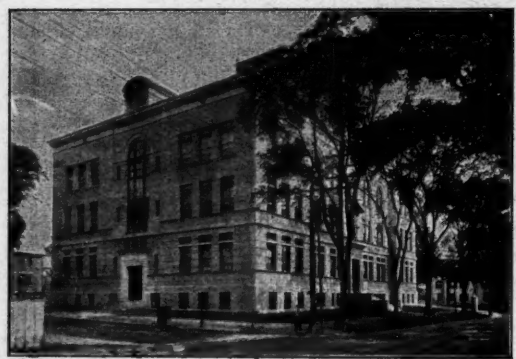
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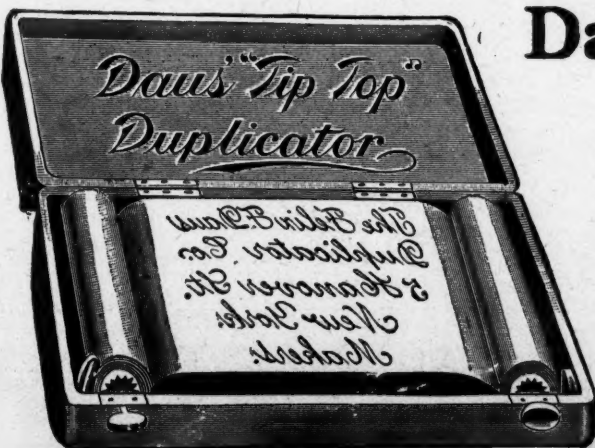
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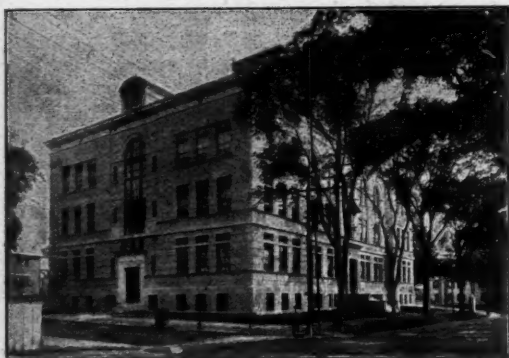
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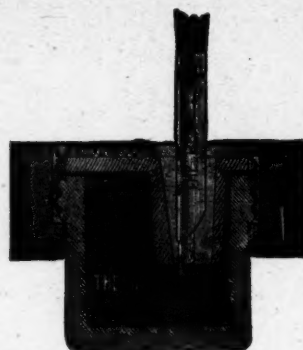
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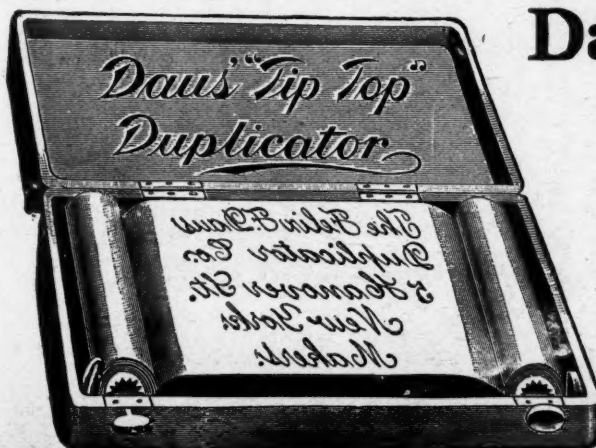
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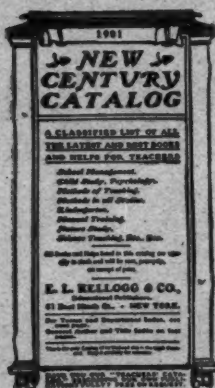
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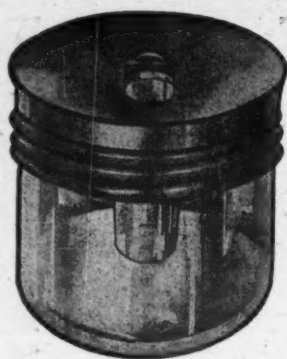
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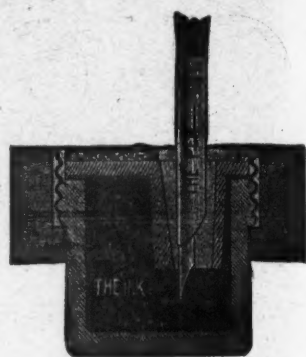
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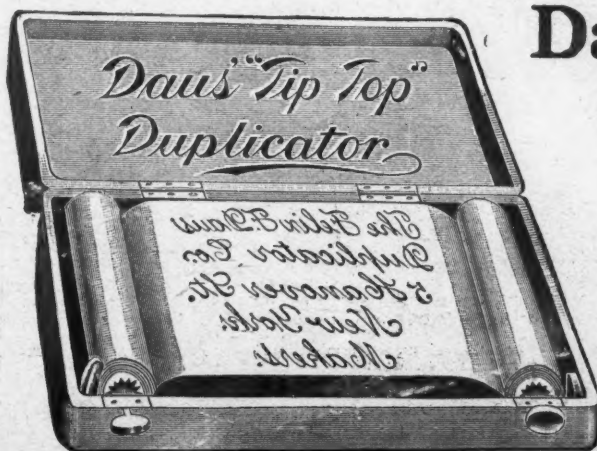
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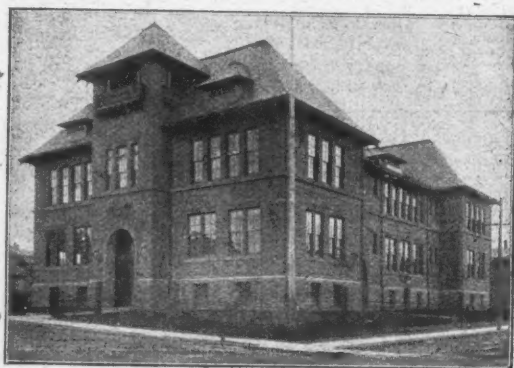
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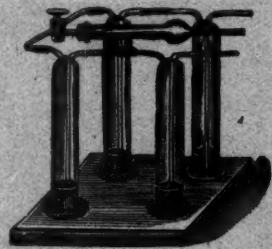
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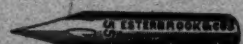
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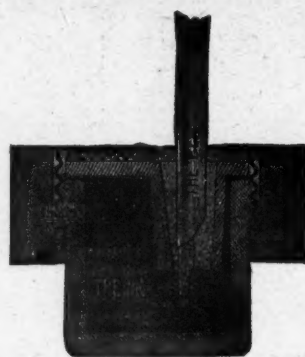
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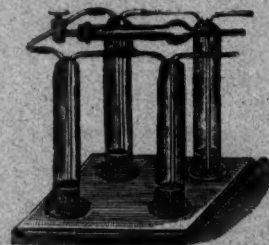
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The Carnegie Gift.

The offer of Andrew Carnegie to give to the establishment in Washington under government control of an institution of higher learning to be managed as a national university the sum of \$10,000,000 was presented to a cabinet meeting by President Roosevelt, Dec. 10. The President announced his intention of conferring with representative congressmen before the matter was formally placed before the public. It was his desire to prepare the way for prompt action by Congress along the lines specified by Mr. Carnegie in his letter.

Plans have been discussed for many years for the foundation of some sort of government university in Washington. In order to promote this enterprise an organization known as the George Washington Memorial Association was instituted to develop the original plan of the first president along modern lines. Two years the Washington Academy of Science made an effort to center the various interests which were working for this end. It was this which attracted the attention of Mr. Carnegie who immediately consulted several educators of prominence. Dr. Daniel C. Gilman, formerly president of Johns Hopkins, became actively interested in the matter, and has been for some time engaged in plans for developing the enterprise. Speaking of the gift, Dr. Gilman said:

So far as I know Mr. Carnegie's plans, they are likely to be of a character which will benefit all the higher institutions of learning in this country and will encourage advanced students and investigators, whether they have taken degrees or not, to prosecute researches in Washington and elsewhere.

He accepts the idea that the collections and scientific bureaus of Washington will heartily co-operate with the new foundation in accordance with a law already passed by Congress in opening the facilities which they possess to the qualified investigator and student. I am confident that he does not contemplate the establishment of a university in the ordinary acceptance of that term. His plans are so broad and so wise that when they are made known it will be acknowledged at home and abroad that in this latest act of munificence he has surpassed himself.

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